APPENDIX 1

METHOD OF WORKING

1. Information was collected and various views were sought in the following ways:

(i) Questionnaires, sent to the local education authorities, requested information about their practice in paying for or assisting pupils at direct grant and independent schools. Others, addressed to the heads of all direct grant schools, asked for information and opinions on certain issues. Two separate sets of questions were sent to the governing bodies of these schools, one on education and one on finance. The replies to the latter set of questions are considered in Appendix 7; all the others are reviewed in Appendix 6. In addition, the information about independent day schools collected in 1967 and summarised in Appendix 6 of the First Report was relevant to the Second Report.

(ii) We sought and obtained evidence from groups and individuals interested in our additional terms of reference. A copy of the letter of invitation is printed in Appendix 4, together with a list of those bodies from which replies were received. We met and talked with a number of these groups. Some of the evidence received and considered in connection with the First Report was also relevant. A brief review of the evidence is contained in Chapter 6 of Volume I of the Second Report.

(iii) We visited a number of schools—independent, direct grant and maintained, and had talks with officers of local education authorities. In addition some members went to Sweden to see schools and talk to educationists. Details of these visits are given in Appendix 3.

(iv) We were supplied with detailed information by the Department of Education and Science, much of which is included in the tables in Volume I.

2. At our request, the Department of Education and Science sponsored Mr. Eric Hoyle of the Department of Education, University of Manchester, to review the research that had been carried out bearing on the topics we were discussing, and to advise us as we proceeded. A summary of the results of his work appears as Appendix 5.

3. Mr. Howard Glennerster has continued to advise us on financial issues; his survey of the finances of direct grant schools is set out in Appendix 7.

APPENDIX 2

LIST OF DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS AND DAY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

(*I*) *Direct grant schools*

Notes:

(i) Source—returns made to Department of Education and Science for January, 1968.

(ii) All figures except those in the last column relate to the upper school.

(iii) Details of the Trinity School of John Whitgift, Croydon, are included. This school became independent on 1st August, 1968.

(iv) In the seventh column—'Number of teachers'—part-time teachers have been counted in terms of their full-time equivalents.

(v) Only full-time pupils have been counted.

[(vi) Percentages have mostly been rounded to the nearest whole number and may not add up to exactly 100 per cent.

(vii) Sixth form pupils are those taking courses at a level wholly or mainly beyond G.C.E. 'O' level whether or not the course prepares pupils for the G.C.E. 'A' level examination.

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
The Abbey School, Reading, Berkshire.	442	—	442	107	—	32	158	—	305	69	—	—	111	25	26	6	189
Adelphi House Grammar School, Salford, Lancashire.	571	—	571	115	—	35	115	—	543	95	—	—	8	1	20	4	150
The Bar Convent Secondary School, York, Yorkshire (E.R.)	335	24	359	60	7	21	125	230	244	68	—	—	62	17	53	15	147
Bath High School, Bath, Somerset.	294	63	357	90	18	22	146	330	135	38	—	—	206	58	16	4	189
Bellerive Girls' School, Liverpool, Lancashire.	468	—	468	90	—	25	129	—	414	89	—	—	16	3	38	8	68
The Belvedere School, Liverpool, Lancashire.	351	—	351	74	—	24	146	—	83	24	15	4	220	63	33	9	150
Birkenhead High School, Birkenhead, Cheshire.	605	—	605	150	—	38	146	—	170	28	—	—	140	23	295	49	163
Blackheath High School, Lewisham, London.	365	—	365	75	—	25	149	—	182	50	—	—	161	44	22	6	151
Bolton School Girls' Division, Bolton, Lancashire	624	—	624	158	—	38	145	—	301	48	—	—	178	29	145	23	237
Bradford Girls' Grammar School Yorkshire (W.R.)	593	—	593	151	—	36	129	—	216	36	—	—	319	54	58	10	147

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Brighton and Hove High School, Brighton, Sussex (East).	365	39	404	98	10	26	146	346	257	64	—	—	137	34	10	2	167
Bromley High School, Bromley, Kent.	417	—	417	106	—	26	149	—	152	37	—	—	252	60	13	3	258
Bury Grammar School for Girls, Bury, Lancashire.	629	—	629	147	—	35	143	—	188	30	13	2	199	32	229	36	153
Convent of the Faithful Companions of Jesus School, Birkenhead, Cheshire.	384	—	384	52	—	22	132	—	239	62	—	—	17	5	128	33	107
Convent of the Holy Child Jesus Secondary School, Blackpool, Lancashire.	455	66	521	105	13	37	101	281	449	86	—	—	48	9	24	5	112
Convent Grammar School, Bury, Lancashire.	609	—	609	91	—	33	125	—	545	89	2	0.3	28	5	34	6	—
Convent of the Sacred Heart of Mary School, Great Crosby, Lancashire.	646	—	646	130	—	33	121	—	596	92	3	1	20	3	27	4	—
Convent of the Sacred Heart Grammar School Newcastle upon Tyne, Northumberland.	665	—	665	116	—	37	115	—	501	75	—	—	25	4	139	21	—
Convent of the Ladies of Mary Secondary School, Scarborough, Yorkshire (N.R.)	343	55	398	65	14	22	122	320	153	38	20	5	69	17	156	39	—

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Croydon High School, Croydon, Surrey.	710	—	710	182	—	46	149	—	330	46	—	—	349	49	31	4	284
Dame Alice Harpur School, Bedford. Bedfordshire.	695	39	734	128	5	45	118	319	564	77	—	—	137	19	33	4	113
Dame Allan's Girls' School, Newcastle upon Tyne, Northumberland.	440	—	440	110	—	26	143	—	170	39	11	3	130	29	129	29	—
Edgehill College, Bideford, Devon.	246	205	451	86	45	31	149	365	207	46	—	—	174	39	70	15	65
Haberdashers' Aske's Acton Girls' School, Middlesex (W.3.)	534	—	534	116	—	37	146	—	258	48	1	0.1	244	45	31	6	125
The Hollies Convent of the Faithful Companions of Jesus Grammar School, Manchester, Lancashire.	658	—	658	134	—	39	136	—	619	94	—	—	14	2	25	4	195
Hulme Grammar School for Girls, Oldham, Lancashire.	410	—	410	92	—	24	131	—	225	55	24	6	101	25	60	14	62
Ipswich High School, Ipswich, Suffolk (East).	350	—	350	72	—	23	146	—	167	48	—	—	128	36	55	16	172
King Edward VI High School for Girls, Birmingham Warwickshire.	519	—	519	146	—	36	115	—	487	94	3	1	20	4	9	2	—

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
The King's High School for Girls, Warwick, Warwickshire.	614	—	614	163	—	38	135	—	369	60	—	—	223	36	22	4	—
La Retraite High School, Clifton, Bristol, Gloucestershire.	539	—	539	100	—	23	108	—	304	56	32	6	119	22	84	16	180
Lark Hill House School, Preston, Lancashire.	503	80	583	112	14	36	116	224	428	73	1	0.2	80	14	74	12	148
Leeds Girls' High School, Leeds, Yorkshire (W.R.)	483	—	483	93	—	32	131	—	155	32	3	1	296	61	29	6	268
Loreto College, Manchester, Lancashire.	947	—	947	246	—	56	124	—	871	92	—	—	23	2	53	6	75
Loughborough High School for Girls, Loughborough, Leicestershire.	491	33	524	97	6	27	120	295	205	39	—	—	274	52	45	9	228
Manchester High School for Girls, Lancashire.	735	—	735	216	—	47	143	—	406	55	3	0.4	271	37	55	7	254
Maynard's Girls' School, Exeter, Devon.	427	—	427	107	—	28	149	—	141	33	—	—	206	48	80	19	125
The Merchant Taylors' School for Girls, Great Crosby, Lancashire.	423	—	423	117	—	26	143	—	129	30	—	—	159	38	135	32	134

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Mount St. Joseph Secondary School, Bolton, Lancashire	647	—	647	115	—	35	117	—	622	96	—	—	10	2	15	2	78
Newcastle (Central) High School, Newcastle upon Tyne, Northumberland.	492	—	492	126	—	31	146	—	201	41	—	—	242	49	49	10	205
North London Collegiate School, Canons Park, Edgware, Middlesex.	737	—	737	213	—	47	143	—	366	50	—	—	353	48	18	2	110
Northampton High School for Girls, Northamptonshire.	533	—	533	99	—	32	117:10	—	380	71	—	—	139	26	14	3	246
Norwich High School, Norfolk	430	—	430	105	—	30	146	—	117	27	—	—	256	60	57	13	192
Notting Hill and Ealing High School, Ealing, Middlesex.	393	—	393	97	—	28	149	—	184	47	8	2	192	49	9	2	203
Nottingham High School, Nottinghamshire.	643	—	643	181	—	43	146	—	318	49	—	—	290	45	35	5	265
Notre Dame Grammar School, Blackburn, Lancashire	547	—	547	116	—	34	117:10	—	484	88	—	—	24	4	39	7	—
Notre Dame Grammar School, Leeds, Yorkshire (W.R.)	604	—	604	102	—	37	116	—	592	98	—	—	10	2	2	0.3	—

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Notre Dame Collegiate School (Everton Valley), Liverpool, Lancashire.	568	—	568	83	—	31	116	—	482	85	—	—	36	6	50	9	—
Notre Dame High School, Manchester, Lancashire	653	—	653	129	—	39	126:10	—	619	95	—	—	7	1	27	4	—
Notre Dame High School, Northampton, Northamptonshire.	525	—	525	79	—	30	122:10	—	384	73	—	—	71	14	70	13	—
Notre Dame High School, Norwich, Norfolk.	491	—	491	40	—	26	128:15	—	131	27	—	—	195	40	165	33	—
Notre Dame High School, Plymouth, Devon.	434	—	434	82	—	27	110	—	267	61	1	0.2	72	17	94	22	—
Notre Dame High School, St. Helens, Lancashire.	734	—	734	142	—	37	122:10	—	711	97	—	—	8	1	15	2	—
Notre Dame High School, Sheffield, Yorkshire (W.R.)	776	—	776	129	—	43	122	—	730	94	—	—	26	3	20	3	—
Notre Dame Convent High School for Girls, Wigan, Lancashire.	774	—	774	138	—	46	117:10	—	746	96	—	—	20	3	8	1	61
Old Palace Girls' School, Croydon, Surrey.	409	—	409	72	—	26	119	—	254	62	—	—	140	34	15	4	96
Oxford High School, Oxfordshire.	376	41	417	117	10	30	146	336	166	40	—	—	227	54	24	6	140

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Paddock House School, Oswaldtwistle, Lancashire.	480	—	480	99	—	26	137	—	453	94	—	—	6	1	21	4	—
Perse School for Girls, Cambridge, Cambridgeshire.	430	—	430	119	—	29	152	—	187	43	—	—	215	50	28	7	144
Portsmouth High School, Hampshire.	397	—	397	97	—	26	146	—	131	33	3	1	188	47	75	19	168
Putney High School, Wandsworth, London.	477	—	477	126	—	34	149	—	156	33	12	3	284	59	25	5	184
Queen Mary School, Lytham St. Annes, Lancashire.	776	—	776	157	—	45	128	—	621	80	—	—	114	15	41	5	29
Queen Victoria High School, Stockton-on-Tees, Durham.	183	—	183	30	—	13	113	—	137	75	—	—	41	22	5	3	101
The Queen's School, Chester, Cheshire.	422	—	422	115	—	27	140	—	254	60	—	—	144	34	24	6	139
Red Maids' School, Bristol, Gloucestershire.	187	98	285	65	34	18	150	297	52	18	52	18	91	32	90	32	—
Redland High School for Girls, Bristol, Gloucestershire.	438	—	438	117	—	27	128	—	92	21	26	6	269	61	51	12	143
St. Anne's College for Girls, Sanderstead, Surrey.	388	—	388	76	—	26	140	—	334	86	—	—	40	10	14	4	—

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
St. Anne's Convent Grammar School, Southampton, Hampshire.	795	—	795	214	—	49	113	—	640	81	—	—	26	3	129	16	—
St. Anthony's Secondary School, Sunderland, Durham.	790	—	790	150	—	45	100	—	735	93	—	—	22	3	33	4	—
St. Dominic's High School for Girls, Stoke-on-Trent, Staffordshire.	630	—	630	118	—	41	119	—	595	94	—	—	25	4	10	2	229
St. Edmund's College, Liverpool, Lancashire.	369	—	369	51	—	23	139:10	—	204	55	—	—	84	23	81	22	—
St. Joseph's Convent Grammar School, Abbey Wood, Erith, Kent.	355	—	355	80	—	24	143	—	229	64	6	2	45	13	75	21	—
St. Joseph's College, Bradford, Yorkshire (W.R.)	926	36	962	190	4	56	127	232	825	86	—	—	65	7	72	7	—
St. Joseph's Convent School, West Hartlepool, Durham.	592	—	592	83	—	31	110	—	458	77	—	—	7	1	127	21	168
St. Mary's College, Leeds, Yorkshire (W.R.)	595	—	595	100	—	32	115	—	550	92	—	—	14	2	31	5	—
School of St. Helen and St. Katherine, Abingdon, Berkshire.	275	131	406	72	32	26	137	356	284	70	1	0.2	102	25	19	5	182

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
									L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding					Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Sheffield High School, Yorkshire (W.R.)	407	—	407	110	—	27	146	—	225	55	—	—	170	42	12	3	160
Shrewsbury High School, Shropshire.	345	—	345	62	—	23	146	—	95	27	1	0.3	197	57	52	15	168
South Hampstead High School, Hampstead, London.	409	—	409	112	—	29	149	—	238	58	—	—	161	39	10	2	161
Stamford High School, Lincolnshire (Kesteven)	456	101	557	122	18	35	136:10	347:10	452	81	—	—	105	19	—	—	149
Streatham Hill and Clapham High School, London.	313	—	313	78	—	26	149	—	113	36	—	—	147	47	53	17	121
Sutton High School, Sutton and Cheam, Surrey.	605	—	605	145	—	44	149	—	288	48	—	—	296	49	21	3	263
Sydenham High School, Lewisham, London.	396	—	396	94	—	27	149	—	203	51	—	—	169	43	24	6	149
Talbot Heath School, Bournemouth, Hampshire.	407	156	563	132	28	33	126	326	176	31	16	3	327	58	44	8	83
Truro High School for Girls, Cornwall.	292	90	382	82	24	26	160	387	76	20	34	9	196	51	76	20	152
Ursuline Convent High School, Brentwood, Essex.	506	106	612	139	17	45	143	380	423	69	5	1	166	27	18	3	148
Ursuline Convent School, Chester, Cheshire.	409	—	409	77	—	24	105:10	—	355	87	—	—	28	7	26	6	107

Girls

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Ursuline High School, Ilford, Essex.	417	—	417	73	—	24	137	—	343	82	—	—	39	9	35	8	151
Wakefield Girls' School, Yorkshire (W.R.)	604	—	604	138	—	37	137	—	281	47	13	2	220	36	90	15	173
Walthamstow Hall, Sevenoaks, Kent.	324	106	430	125	25	23	157	373	261	61	—	—	153	35	16	4	131
Wimbledon High School, Surrey.	414	—	414	115	—	28	149	—	191	46	—	—	213	51	10	2	238
Winckley Square Convent School, Preston, Lancashire.	686	—	686	165	—	46	122	—	649	94	—	—	19	3	18	3	174
Withington Girls' School Manchester, Lancashire.	442	—	442	116	—	28	128:10	—	314	71	—	—	109	25	19	4	89

Direct grant schools (continued)

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Abingdon School, Berkshire.	415	191	606	179	32	37	158	452	382	63	—	—	188	31	36	6	—
Alleyn's School, Dulwich, London.	788	—	788	198	—	51	164	—	432	55	—	—	221	28	135	17	—
Arnold School, Blackpool, Lancashire.	511	72	583	155	12	33	152	347	433	74	—	—	114	20	36	6	142
Ashville College, Harrogate, Yorkshire (W.R.)	141	281	422	109	67	28	146	359	89	21	18	4	296	70	19	5	—
Bablake School, Coventry, Warwickshire.	841	—	841	217	—	48	118	—	383	46	—	—	246	29	212	25	—
Bancroft's School, Woodford, Essex.	310	77	387	107	20	24	150	399	174	45	31	8	152	39	30	8	—
Barnard Castle School, Durham.	150	320	470	131	68	30	141	366	104	22	38	8	256	55	72	15	55
Bedford Modern School, Bedfordshire.	767	95	862	247	11	53	117	347	579	67	—	—	237	28	46	5	159
Birkenhead School, Cheshire.	576	27	603	196	4	40	127	367	171	28	—	—	278	46	154	26	209
Bolton School Boys' Division, Bolton Lancashire.	915	—	915	287	—	61	145	—	431	47	—	—	232	25	252	28	131
Bradford Grammar School, Yorkshire (W.R.)	998	—	998	308	—	61	132	—	316	32	18	2	564	56	100	10	72

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Brentwood, Sir Anthony Browne's School, (Brentwood School), Essex.	667	224	891	262	25	53	156:10	402:10	435	49	—	—	401	45	55	6	171
Bristol Cathedral School, Gloucestershire.	397	—	397	126	—	23	139:10	—	102	26	50	13	134	33	111	28	—
Bristol Grammar School, Gloucestershire.	995	—	995	310	—	55	126	—	323	32	62	6	444	45	166	17	189
Bury Grammar School for Boys, Lancashire.	606	—	606	155	—	36	143	—	184	30	5	1	172	29	245	40	66
Caterham School, Caterham and Warlingham, Surrey.	177	224	401	87	56	26	152	383	156	39	—	—	227	57	18	4	51
College of St. Joseph, Blackpool, Lancashire.	496	57	553	91	10	30	127	310	467	84	—	—	50	9	36	7	52
Culford School, Bury St. Edmunds, Suffolk (West)	144	252	396	72	64	28	147	390	94	24	6	2	271	68	25	6	51
Dame Allan's Boys' School, Newcastle upon Tyne.	453	—	453	124	—	27	143	—	162	36	5	1	185	41	101	22	—
Dauntsey's School, West Lavington, Wiltshire.	65	319	384	99	83	30	160	421	92	24	37	10	250	65	5	1	—
De La Salle College, Salford, Lancashire.	756	—	756	236	—	41	127	—	725	96	1	0.1	15	2	15	2	140
De La Salle College, Sheffield, Yorkshire	635	—	635	148	—	37	104	—	598	94	—	—	20	3	17	3	—

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Eltham College, Mottingham, Kent.	354	109	463	133	24	30	167	454	182	39	—	—	226	49	55	12	80
Exeter School, Devon.	438	41	479	148	9	31	152	395	136	28	—	—	200	42	143	30	99
Framlingham College, Suffolk (East)	91	353	444	102	80	30	145	370	110	25	5	1	312	70	17	4	—
Haberdashers' Aske's School, Elstree, Hertfordshire.	810	67	877	257	8	59	164	395	273	31	—	—	528	60	76	9	199
Hereford Cathedral Grammar School, Herefordshire.	243	123	366	119	34	22	133:10	313:10	63	18	25	7	168	46	110	29	—
Hulme Grammar School for Boys, Oldham, Lancashire.	616	—	616	156	—	36	140	—	339	55	35	6	135	22	107	17	92
Hymers College, Kingston upon Hull, Yorkshire (E.R.)	478	—	478	156	—	36	155	—	252	53	—	—	207	43	19	4	123
Kent College, Canterbury, Kent.	132	241	373	104	65	25	175	412	12	3	70	19	223	60	68	18	76
Kimbolton School, Huntingdonshire.	148	263	411	99	64	28	117	340:10	212	52	—	—	170	41	29	7	77
King Edward VI Grammar School Norwich, Norfolk	482	74	556	125	13	32	140	380	151	27	—	—	289	52	116	21	79
King Edward VII School, Lytham St. Annes, Lancashire.	597	—	597	148	—	32	128	—	443	74	—	—	104	18	50	8	88

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
King Edward's School, Bath, Somerset.	411	—	411	118	—	24	138	—	133	32	—	—	221	54	57	14	153
King Edward's School, Birmingham, Warwickshire.	713	—	713	243	—	51	115	—	607	85	5	1	85	12	16	2	—
King Henry VIII School, Coventry.	837	—	837	237	—	49	129:10	—	552	66	—	—	184	22	101	12	195
The King's School, Chester, Cheshire.	412	—	412	104	—	25	152	—	259	63	1	0.2	115	28	37	9	114
The King's School, Worcester, Worcestershire.	350	201	551	151	36	36	153:10	369:10	356	65	—	—	161	29	34	6	80
Kingston Grammar School, Kingston-upon-Thames, Surrey.	552	—	552	150	—	37	149	—	305	55	—	—	203	37	44	8	—
Latymer Upper School, Hammersmith, London.	1,059	—	1,059	272	—	65	140	—	630	59	—	—	337	32	92	9	54
Leeds Grammar School, Yorkshire (W.R.)	961	—	961	251	—	59	155	—	273	28	7	1	521	54	160	17	152
Loughborough Grammar School, Leicestershire.	528	93	621	152	15	40	143	358	206	33	—	—	349	56	66	11	181
Magdalen College School, Oxford, Oxfordshire.	355	63	418	131	15	29	164	437	158	38	—	—	190	45	70	17	—
Manchester Grammar School, Lancashire.	1,414	—	1,414	535	—	89	147	—	908	64	21	2	288	20	197	14	—

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
									L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
The Merchant Taylors' School Great Crosby, Lancashire.	619	43	662	179	6	41	155	380	191	29	—	—	250	38	221	33	61
Newcastle upon Tyne Royal Grammar School, Northumberland.	785	—	785	219	—	53	153:10	—	271	35	—	—	356	45	158	20	151
Oakham School, Rutland.	224	337	561	125	60	38	147:10	446	251	45	—	—	261	46	49	9	—
The Perse School, Cambridge, Cambridgeshire.	358	53	411	106	13	25	152	382	182	44	—	—	203	50	26	6	138
Plymouth College and Mannamead School, Devon.	507	91	598	158	15	39	146	341	162	27	—	—	308	52	128	21	260
Pocklington School, Yorkshire (E.R.)	219	261	480	121	54	29	153	381	209	44	—	—	242	50	29	6	70
Portsmouth Grammar School, Hampshire.	723	—	723	184	—	49	152	—	233	32	—	—	311	43	179	25	193
Preston Catholic College, Lancashire.	900	—	900	255	—	54	122	—	835	93	—	—	23	2	42	5	—
Queen Elizabeth Grammar School, Wakefield, Yorkshire (W.R.)	672	37	709	203	5	42	134	308	271	38	18	3	268	38	152	21	129
Queen Elizabeth Grammar School, Blackburn, Lancashire.	728	—	728	156	—	45	146	—	358	49	34	5	206	28	130	18	121
Queen Elizabeth's Hospital, Bristol, Gloucestershire.	274	114	388	83	29	22	152	272	45	12	115	29	131	34	97	25	—

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
									L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
St. Albans School, Hertfordshire.	652	—	652	176	—	41	147	—	322	49	—	—	276	43	54	8	—
St. Anselm's College, Birkenhead.	608	—	608	139	—	39	128	—	567	93	—	—	23	4	18	3	102
St. Bede's College, Manchester, Lancashire.	595	59	654	138	9	34	125	263	624	95	—	—	23	4	7	1	—
St. Boniface's College, Plymouth, Devon.	369	69	438	93	16	25	150	297	265	61	—	—	73	16	100	23	—
St. Brendan's College, Bristol, Gloucestershire.	686	—	686	174	—	38	131	—	538	78	—	—	61	9	87	13	98
St. Cuthbert's Grammar School, Newcastle upon Tyne, Northumberland.	1,025	—	1,025	197	—	52	117	—	788	77	—	—	64	6	173	17	—
St. Edward's College, Liverpool, Lancashire.	734	—	734	231	—	41	125	—	667	91	—	—	27	4	40	5	144
St. Francis Xavier's College, Liverpool, Lancashire.	604	—	604	132	—	35	128	—	529	87	—	—	35	6	40	7	—
St. John's College, Southsea, Portsmouth, Hampshire.	516	131	647	150	20	45	131	332	375	58	—	—	181	28	91	14	125
St. Joseph's College, Stoke-on-Trent, Staffordshire.	602	—	602	106	—	35	122	—	579	96	—	—	10	2	13	2	105
St. Mary's College, Blackburn, Lancashire.	731	—	731	201	—	43	137	—	667	91	—	—	12	2	52	7	—

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
									L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
St. Mary's College, Great Crosby, Lancashire.	895	—	895	258	—	52	128	—	853	95	—	—	17	2	25	3	199
St. Michael's College, Leeds, Yorkshire (W.R.).	617	—	617	131	—	33	131	—	613	99	—	—	2	0.3	2	0.3	—
Shebbear College, Devon.	59	247	306	49	81	22	159	390	40	13	51	17	189	62	26	8	—
Stamford School, Lincolnshire (Kesteven).	390	197	587	139	36	36	153:10	378	440	75	—	—	145	24	2	0.3	72
Stockport Grammar School, Cheshire.	499	—	499	114	—	30	139:10	—	247	49	—	—	203	41	49	10	164
Thornleigh College, Bolton Lancashire.	635	—	635	114	—	37	131	—	620	98	—	—	7	1	8	1	—
*Trinity School of John Whitgift, Croydon, Surrey.	613	—	613	164	—	42	63	—	310	51	—	—	275	45	28	4	—
Truro School, Cornwall.	336	236	572	132	41	36	149	377	162	28	2	0.3	295	52	113	20	133
Wellington School, Somerset.	218	227	445	110	51	26	147	384	137	30	2	0.4	243	54	63	15	—
West Buckland School, Devon.	21	199	220	61	90	19	115:10	427	17	8	48	22	146	66	9	4	—
West Park Grammar School, St. Helens, Lancashire.	652	—	652	158	—	36	117	—	636	98	—	—	8	1	8	1	—

* became an independent school as from the 1st August, 1968.

Boys

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
									No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
William Hulme's Grammar School, Manchester, Lancashire.	753	—	753	213	—	44	150	—	449	60	—	—	175	23	129	17	—
Woodbridge School, Suffolk (East).	219	138	357	53	39	24	134	326	133	37	3	1	204	57	17	5	74
Woodhouse Grove School, Apperley Bridge, Aireborough, Yorkshire (W.R.).	129	241	370	85	65	22	149	384	138	37	21	6	205	55	6	2	42
Xaverian College, Manchester, Lancashire.	704	—	704	178	—	40	128	—	673	96	2	0.3	9	1	20	3	106

Mixed

		Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
		Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
														Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
										No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
The Canon Slade Grammar School, Bolton, Lancashire.	Girls	340	—	340	92	—												
	Boys	310	—	310	100	—												
	Total	650	—	650	192	—	39	131	—	593	91	—	—	25	4	32	5	—
Cheadle Hulme, The Manchester Warehousemen and Clerks' Orphan Schools (Cheadle Hulme School), Cheadle and Gatley, Cheshire.	Girls	361	57	418	104	14												46
	Boys	338	65	403	106	16												43
	Total	699	122	821	210	15	53	141	333	437	53	5	1	318	39	61	7	89

Wales

	Number of pupils			Size of VIth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Fee		Types of places								Number on roll of lower school (if any)
									L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
													Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
	Day	Boarding	Total				Tuition only	Tuition and boarding	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Girls																	
Howell's School, Llandaff, Cardiff, Glamorgan.	371	131	502	109	26	34	141:10	384:10	248	49	—	—	226	45	28	6	—
Monmouth School for Girls, Monmouthshire.	275	103	378	77	27	29	120	339	163	43	32	8	118	31	65	17	51
Dr. Williams' School, Dolgellau, Merionethshire.	48	230	278	62	83	21	181	398:10	47	17	29	10	179	64	23	8	26
Boys																	
Monmouth School, Monmouthshire.	263	185	448	123	41	33	135	355	191	43	43	10	122	27	92	20	53

Summary of figures for direct grant grammar schools (upper schools) at 18th January, 1968

	Number of pupils			Size of sixth form	% of Boarding	Number of teachers	Types of place								Number on roll of lower school
	Day	Boarding	Total				L.E.A. free or reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary				
											Fee paid in full		Fee partly or wholly remitted		
							No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
England and Wales All girls' schools	47,282	1,933	49,215	10,654	4	2,959	31,540	64	370	0.8	12,657	26	4,648	9	10,057
All boys' schools	43,918	6,632	50,550	13,443	13	3,086	27,980	55	779	2	15,758	31	6,033	12	6,406
Mixed schools Girls	701	57	758	196	8										46
Boys	648	65	713	206	9										43
Total	1,349	122	1,471	402	8	92	1,030	70	5	0.3	343	23	93	6	89
All schools Girls	47,983	1,990	49,973	10,850	4										10,103
Boys	44,566	6,697	51,263	13,649	13										6,449*
Total	92,549	8,687	101,236	24,499	9	6,254	60,550	60	1,154	1	28,758	28	10,774	11	16,552
Wales Girls	694	464	1,158	248	40		458	40	61	5	523	45	116	10	77
Boys	263	185	448	123	41		191	43	43	10	122	27	92	20	53
Total	957	649	1,606	371	40	117	649	40	104	6	645	40	208	13	130

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* This includes 536 day boys in 23 of the girls' lower schools.

(*II*) *Public schools*

Notes:

(i) Our original terms of reference are mainly concerned with public schools, i.e. the independent schools in membership of the Headmasters' Conference, Association of Governing Bodies of Public Schools and Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools. The First Report considered boarding schools and listed all schools with boarding places in Appendix 14 of Volume II. This Second Report deals with the day public schools, i.e. schools with less than 25 per cent of their pupils boarding and these have been listed. All details were compiled from returns made to the Department of Education and Science for January, 1968. Particulars of other independent recognised efficient schools can be found in the Department of Education and Science publication List 70 (1968).

(ii) For the purpose of these lists primary pupils have been defined as pupils aged 10 and under plus one-third of the 11 year olds, and secondary pupils as those aged 12 and over plus two-thirds of the 11 year olds. Where there are boys in the primary departments of girls' schools figures have been given separately.

(iii) Sixth form pupils are those taking courses at a level wholly or mainly beyond G.C.E. 'O' level whether or not the course prepares pupils for the G.C.E. 'A' level examination.

(a) *Public schools with day pupils only*

School	Annual tuition fees	Age range	Total number of pupils		Number in sixth form
			Primary	Secondary	
Girls					
Atherley School, Southampton, Hampshire	£96–201	4–18	128	173	30
Channing School, Highgate, London, N.6	£108–295	4–18	115	225	45
City of London School for Girls, London, E.C.4	£156–162	7–18	82	332	76
Cleveland School, Stockton-on-Tees, County Durham	£78:15–126	B. 3–10 G. 4–18	41 69	— 146	— 18
Croham Hurst School, Croydon, Surrey	£81–234	5–18	163	247	39
Derby High School for Girls, Littleover, Derbyshire	£63–189	B. 6–7 G. 5–18	2 123	— 179	— 29
Durham High School for Girls, County Durham	£126–165	B. 4–7 G. 4–18	22 127	— 190	— 29
Edgbaston Church of England College for Girls, Birmingham, Warwickshire	99–168 gns.	B. 4–7 G. 4–18	1 176	— 301	— 63
Edgbaston High School for Girls, Birmingham, Warwickshire	£99–180	B. 4–7 G. 4–18	5 382	— 471	— 105
Elmslie Girls' School, Blackpool, Lancashire	£120–153	10–18	38	351	56
Eothen School, Caterham, Surrey	£75–246	4–18	125	170	33

(a) *Public schools with day pupils only (continued)*

School	Annual tuition fees	Age range	Total number of pupils		Number in sixth form
			Primary	Secondary	
Girls (continued)					
Francis Holland (C.E.) School, London, N.W.1	£162–270	4–19	162	135	26
Francis Holland (C.E.) School, London, S.W.1	£162–270	4–18	139	131	25
Guildford High School for Girls, Surrey	£141–201	5–18	174	345	74
James Allen's Girls' School, London, S.E.22	£171	5–18	157	351	88
Lady Eleanor Holles School, Hampton, Middlesex	171–216 gns.	5–18	202	480	126
Lewes High School, Sussex	£82:10–142:10	B. 4– 7 G. 4–18	5 35	— 54	— 5
Newcastle upon Tyne Church High School, Northumberland	£120–150	4–18	241	346	69
St. Alban's High School for Girls, Hertfordshire	£129–237	4–18	176	262	35
St. Mary's School, Gerrards Cross, Buckinghamshire	£138–210	5–18	62	126	22
St. Paul's Girls' School, London, W.6	£240	10–18	23	463	134
Stratford House School, Bromley, Kent	£63–204	5–17	107	107	5
Sunderland Church High School, County Durham	£141–174	4–18	167	200	35

(a) *Public schools with day pupils only (continued)*

School	Annual tuition fees	Age range	Total number of pupils		Number in sixth form
			Primary	Secondary	
Girls (continued)					
Surbiton High School, Kingston-upon-Thames, Surrey	£141–189	7–18	120	319	57
York College for Girls, York	£93–201	B. 4– 8 G. 4–18	22 95	— 186	— 25
Boys					
City of London School, London, E.C.4	£234	8–19	82	698	233
The John Lyon School, Harrow, Middlesex	£192	10–18	15	392	102
The King's School, Macclesfield, Cheshire	£114–167	7–19	163	1,060	242
Nottingham High School, Nottingham	£207	8–19	171	743	198
St. Benedict's School, London, W.5	£165–246	7–19	213	521	165
St. Dunstan's College, London, S.E.6	£180	7–19	160	611	178
University College School, London, N.W.3	£225–240	7–19	131	597	200
Whitgift School, Croydon, Surrey	£157	9–18	55	699	217

(b) *Public schools with some boarders but less than 25 per cent of their pupils*

School	Annual fees		Age range	Total number of pupils		Number of boarding pupils	Number in sixth form
	Tuition	Tuition & boarding		Primary	Secondary		
Girls							
Alice Ottley School, Worcestershire	£124:10–231	£468	4–19	184	406	112	109
Bedford High School, Bedfordshire	£168–225	£402–459	7–19	174	412	141	85
Clifton High School for Girls, Bristol	£112:10–198	£459	B. 5– 7 G. 4–18	12 262	— 448	— 98	— 88
Convent of the Holy Child Jesus School, Edgbaston, Birmingham, Warwickshire	150 gns.	£252	B. 5– 8 G. 4–18	18 100	— 248	— 46	— 46
Greenacre School, Banstead, Surrey	£90–210	£420	4–18	114	164	36	25
Hull High School for Girls, Yorkshire (E.R.)	£135–193	£276–301	B. 4– 8 G. 3–18	51 159	— 173	— 15	— 32
Kingsley School, Leamington Spa, Warwickshire	£129–213	£402–429	4–18	143	239	69	40
Mount School, Mill Hill, London, N.W.7	£144–168	£396	6–18	59	132	21	15
Northwood College, Middlesex	£108–207	£303–402	4–19	162	262	42	50
Parsons Mead School, Ashtead, Surrey	£84–237	£426–477	4–17	135	201	32	24
Polam Hall School, Darlington, County Durham	£60–210	£405–450	B. 3– 5 G. 3–18	14 96	— 224	— 63	— 26

(b) *Public schools with some boarders but less than 25 per cent of their pupils* (*continued*)

School	Annual fees		Age range	Total number of pupils		Number of boarding pupils	Number in sixth form
	Tuition	Tuition & boarding		Primary	Secondary		
Girls (continued)							
St. Dunstan's Abbey School, Plymouth, Devon	£115:10–163:10	£289:10	5–18	64	160	17	23
St. Hilary's School, Alderley Edge, Cheshire	£171–249	£384–420	4–19	121	180	32	20
St. Margaret's School, Exeter, Devon	123–156 gns.	339–528 gns.	7–18	80	212	64	26
Trinity Hall School, Southport, Lancashire	£204	£429	4–18	93	216	76	35
Upton Hall Convent School, Wirral, Cheshire	£135	£255	B. 5– 8 G. 4–18	28 156	— 343	— 35	— 33
Boys							
Dulwich College, London, S.E.21	£252	£501	9–19	117	1,211	179	410
Forest School, Snaresbrook, London, E.17	£240	£489	11–19	—	455	113	130
Ipswich School, Suffolk	£180–285	£372–507	6–19	170	469	159	141
King's College School, Wimbledon, London, S.W.19	£228–252	£462	8–18	175	735	32	261
Liverpool College, Lancashire	£240	£417	6–18	219	531	66	166

(b) *Public schools with some boarders but less than 25 per cent of their pupils* (*continued*)

School	Annual fees		Age range	Total number of pupils		Number of boarding pupils	Number in sixth form
	Tuition	Tuition & boarding		Primary	Secondary		
Boys (continued)							
Merchant Taylors' School, Northwood, Middlesex	£300	£460	11–18	—	550	60	262
St. Paul's School, London, S.W.13	£283:10–304:10	£471–492	12–18	—	632	75	313
Solihull School, Warwickshire	£210–243	£495	8–19	140	718	77	175
Warwick School, Warwickshire	£177–210	£372–411	7–19	185	648	115	139

APPENDIX 3

VISITS TO SCHOOLS, AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS, AND LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

The members of the Commission visited a cross-section of schools in six areas. In each case, they met officers of the local education authority and H.M. Inspectors for the area who gave a considerable amount of background information. This procedure enabled the Commission to see each school in the context of its local situation.

In addition to these area visits, members also made a number of visits to individual schools, meeting the head and usually staff and sometimes also the officers of the local education authority. Lists of the schools visited and the local education authorities whose officers were met are set out below.

Members have visited many other schools or met the heads or staff working in them. Only schools visited in the context of the Commission's work have been listed.

Besides visiting schools in this country the Commission decided that it would be valuable for a group of its members to visit Sweden to see at first hand the working of a comprehensive system, visiting schools and talking to educationists, administrators, staff and pupils.

(a) *Areas Visited*

BEDFORD

Bedford High School	I: G
Bedford Modern School	DG: B
Bedford School	I: B
The Dame Alice Harpur School	DG: G
Goldington County Secondary	M: B/G
Bedford Pilgrim School	M: B/G
Stratton School	M: B/G
Westfield County Secondary	M: B/G
Luton VI Form College	M: B/G
Mander College	FE

BLACKBURN

The Billinge School	M:C: B/G
Notre Dame Grammar School	DG: G
Queen Elizabeth's Grammar School	DG: B
Shadsworth High School	M:C: B/G
St. Mary's College	DG: B
St. Wilfrid's C. of E. School	M:C: B/G
Westholme School	I: G
College of Technology and Design	FE

BRISTOL

Bristol Cathedral School	DG: B
Bristol Grammar School	DG: B

Colston's Girls' School	I: G
Hartcliffe School	M:C: B/G
*La Retraite High School	DG: G
Portway School	M:C: B/G
*Queen Elizabeth's Hospital	DG: B
Redland High School	DG: G
The Red Maids' School	DG: G
St. Brendan's College	DG: B
St. Mary Redcliffe and Temple C. of E. School	M:C: B/G
Bristol College of Commerce	FE
Bristol Technical College	FE

LONDON

Blackheath High School	DG: G
Bishop Thomas Grant School, S.W.16	M:C: B/G
Croydon High School	DG: G
Godolphin and Latymer School, W.6	M: G
Holloway School	M:C: B
Islington Green School	M:C: B/G
James Allen's Girls' School, S.E.22	I: G
Kidbrooke School, S.E.3	M:C: G
King's College School, Wimbledon	I: B
Mayfield School, S.W.15	M:C: G
North London Collegiate School, Edgware	DG: G
Old Palace School, Croydon	DG: G
Sarah Siddons School, W.2	M:C: G
Sutton High School	DG: G
St. Richard of Chichester School, N.W.1	M:C: B/G
Tulse Hill School, S.W.2	M:C: B
William Ellis School, N.W.5	M: B

MANCHESTER

Cheetham Secondary School	M: B/G
Chetham's Hospital School	I: B
*The Hollies Convent F.C.J. Grammar School	DG: G
Loreto College	DG: G
The Manchester Grammar School	DG: B
Manchester High School	DG: G
*Notre Dame Convent High School	DG: G
Poundswick High School	M:C: B/G
*St. Bede's College	DG: B
St. Pius X R.C. School	M: G
William Hulme's Grammar School	DG: B
Withington Girls' School	DG: G
Xaverian College	DG: B

NEWCASTLE

Barnard Castle School, Durham	DG: B
*Convent of the Sacred Heart Secondary Grammar School	DG: G
Dame Allan's School	DG: B

*Dame Allan's Girls' School	DG: G
La Sagesse Convent High School	I: G
Manor Park School	M:C: B/G
Newcastle upon Tyne Central High School	DG: G
Royal Grammar School	DG: B
Slatyford School	M:C: B/G
St. Cuthbert's Grammar School	DG: B
Charles Trevelyan Technical College	FE

(b) *Other schools visited*

Abingdon School	DG: B
*Bablake School, Coventry	DG: B
*Barr's Hill School, Coventry	M: G
Binley Park School, Coventry	M:C: B/G
Bolton School for Boys	DG: B
Bolton School for Girls	DG: G
*Caludon Castle Comprehensive Secondary, Coventry	M:C: B
Canon Slade Grammar School, Bolton	DG: B/G
Caterham School	DG: B
*Cathedral C. of E. City High, Wakefield	M:C: B/G
Dauntsey's School, Wiltshire	DG: B
The Hulme Grammar School for Boys, Oldham	DG: B
*The Hulme Grammar School for Girls, Oldham	DG: G
*Kettlethorpe City High, Wakefield	M:C: B/G
King Edward's School, Bath	DG: B
Kingsfield School, Gloucestershire	M: B/G
*King Henry VIII School, Coventry	DG: B
*Lavington Controlled School, Wiltshire	M: B
Leeds Grammar School	DG: B
Loughborough Grammar School	DG: B
Loughborough High School	DG: G
*Lyng Hall Comprehensive Secondary, Coventry	M:C: G
Nottingham High School	I: B
Oakham School, Rutland	DG: B
President Kennedy Comprehensive School, Coventry	M:C: B/G
Queen Elizabeth Grammar School, Wakefield	DG: B
Rosebery County School, Surrey	M: G
School of St. Helen and St. Katharine, Abingdon	DG: G
Shebbear College, Devon	DG: B
*Stoke Park Secondary School, Coventry	M: G
St. Anne's Grammar School, Southampton	DG: G
St. John's College, Southsea	DG: B
*Thornes House School, Wakefield	M:C: B/G
Wakefield Girls' High School	DG: G
*Whitley Abbey Comprehensive Secondary, Coventry	M:C: B/G

*The Woodlands Comprehensive Secondary, Coventry M:C: B

Key: C—Comprehensive
DG—Direct Grant
I—Independent
M—Maintained
FE—Further Education
B—Boys
G—Girls
B/G—Mixed

*In the case of these schools members of the Commission, in their official capacity, met the head and in some cases governors or staff, but did not visit the school.

(c) *List of local education authorities whose officers met members of the Commission*

Bath
Bedfordshire
Berkshire
Blackburn
Bristol
Cheshire
Coventry
Croydon
Leicestershire
Inner London Education Authority
Lancashire
Manchester
Newcastle upon Tyne
Northumberland
Oldham
Rutland
Southampton
Stockport
Wakefield

APPENDIX 4

EVIDENCE

Section 1 Letter inviting evidence

Section 2 (a) Organisations which submitted evidence
(b) Individuals who submitted evidence

SECTION 1

LETTER INVITING EVIDENCE

'The ....[Name of Organisation] .... was good enough to offer evidence to this Commission on the integration of the public schools, following the invitation sent to you in May 1966.

The First Report of the Commission is concerned only with public and other independent boarding schools. There is to be a Second Report on independent day schools, and direct grant grammar schools. You may remember that our terms of reference were extended in October 1967 when the Commission was asked to "advise on the most effective method or methods by which direct grant grammar schools in England and Wales and grant-aided schools in Scotland can participate in the movement towards comprehensive reorganisation, and to review the principle of central government grant to these schools".

I am writing on behalf of the Commission to invite you to submit further evidence, primarily on direct grant grammar schools, but also on any aspect of independent day schools. You need not repeat any of the evidence you have already sent us but you may wish to add to it.

The Commission is on this occasion approaching a more limited number of bodies than in 1966; all of them are familiar with the direct grant schools and there is no need to prepare a questionnaire for them. The general problem to be considered is posed in the terms of reference, and any suggestions of ways in which those schools could take part in the movement towards comprehensive reorganisation will be very welcome. The Commission will also have to consider whether the present arrangements for paying grants to the direct grant and Scottish grant-aided schools should continue, be modified or abandoned. If these arrangements continue, have these schools a distinctive part to play in the national system of education? Their place in a local comprehensive organisation must depend partly on their size and resources, and also on the reorganisation proposals of the local education authority or authorities concerned. The Commission hopes that those giving evidence will help them to arrive at constructive proposals in the light of these questions.

It would be very helpful if we could have 40 copies of your evidence, but if this is difficult please send three and the Commission will arrange for further copies to be made. The Commission would be grateful to have your evidence before the end of December, and sooner if that is possible.'

SECTION 2

(a) ORGANISATIONS WHICH SUBMITTED EVIDENCE

Assistant Masters' Association
Association of Assistant Mistresses
Association of Catholic Direct Grant Schools
Association of Chief Education Officers
Association of Education Committees
Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools
Association of Governing Bodies of Public Schools
Association of Head Mistresses
Association of Independent and Direct Grant Schools
Association of Municipal Corporations
Association of Voluntary Aided Secondary Schools
Audits of Great Britain Limited
Bow Group
Catholic Education Council
Church of England Board of Education
Comprehensive Schools Committee
County Councils Association
Direct Grant Joint Committee
'Forum'—editorial board
Friends of the Girls' Public Day School Trust
Girls' Public Day School Trust
Headmasters' Association
Headmasters' Conference
Hooker Craigmyle and Company Limited
Inner London Education Authority
Methodist Education Committee
National Association of Head Teachers
National Association of Schoolmasters
National Secular Society
National Union of Conservative and Unionist Associations
National Union of Teachers
Parents and Staff Association of Sutton High School
Parents' Representative Committee of Notting Hill and Ealing High School
Workers' Educational Association

(b) INDIVIDUALS WHO SUBMITTED EVIDENCE

Professor G. E. Bacon, Sheffield University
Captain M. J. Button
J. Dawkins, Chief Education Officer for Blackburn
Barbara Forster
Mrs. D. R. Gilbey
Dr. E. Halsall, University of Hull
Dr. I. V. Hansen, University of Melbourne
Professor E. W. Hawkins, University of York
M. G. Hinton, Headmaster of Sevenoaks School

A. E. Howard, Headmaster of Wandsworth School
K. R. Imeson, Headmaster of Nottingham High School
B. Jackson, Advisory Centre for Education
Lord James of Rusholme
O. F. Kraushaar, Director of a study of the American independent school
Miss J. I. Leiper, Headmistress of James Allen's Girls' School
P. G. Mason, High Master of Manchester Grammar School
C. R. Maxey
I. McCulloch
Miss M. Miles, Headmistress of Mayfield School
C. P. Milroy, Chief Education Officer for Gloucestershire
R. St. J. Pitts-Tucker, Deputy Secretary of Headmasters' Association and Headmasters' Conference
H. C. Pritchard
M. K. Ross, Headmaster of Crown Woods School
F. H. Shaw, Headmaster of King's College School, Wimbledon
D. H. Thompson, Headmaster of Chigwell School
L. K. Turner, Headmaster of Watford Grammar School
R. Wort
T. J. P. York

Notes:

(i) Evidence submitted before the Commission was re-constituted, some of which was relevant to this Report, was listed in the Commission's First Report.
(ii) Individual members also received letters from many persons interested in the future of the schools listed in the terms of reference.
(iii) Evidence applying to Scotland is listed in Volume III.

APPENDIX 5

THE RESEARCH REVIEWED

by Eric Hoyle

It was an early decision of the Commission that apart from obtaining questionnaire data from the schools it would initiate no other research projects. It would have been exceedingly difficult in the time available to the Commission to complete any major piece of research which would have thrown light upon the alternative policies available to the Government. However a considerable body of research findings was accessible to the Commission and the decision was made to consider such of these as time and resources permitted. The writer was engaged to collate and evaluate existing research on those topics which emerged during the Commission's discussions as having particular interest and significance. The major areas of interest which emerged were as follows:

(a) The sociology of learning.
(b) Comprehensive education.
(c) The gifted child and his school.
(d) The sixth form.
(e) The staffing of schools.
(f) International comparisons, with special reference to Sweden.

This Appendix is a summary of a series of working papers prepared for the Commission on these topics.

Educational research rarely yields unequivocal guides to policy. Large-scale studies allowing for the necessary control of variables have only recently been mounted in this country and the results of the more relevant of these projects are not yet available. Moreover only a limited number of educational problems is being investigated on this scale. Educational research in this country has been generally limited in scope and duration and the strict comparison of results from small-scale studies, often using different methods of data collection and analysis, is not possible, and the interpretation of results by individual investigators is open to the distorting effect of preconceived ideas. These problems should be kept in mind by the reader of this Appendix.

THE SOCIOLOGY OF LEARNING

Every report concerned with the reorganisation of British education which has been published in recent years has to some degree considered the relationship between social class and educational opportunity. This relationship is now very familiar. Whether we consider entry into the A stream of the primary school, eleven-plus results, length of school life at the secondary stage or many other criteria of educational attainment we find that this shows a direct relationship with the social class of the child's family, a relationship which is not wholly removed when I.Q. is held constant. It is no surprise, therefore, that Table 23 in Section 3 of Appendix 6 reveals that children from working class families are greatly under-represented even amongst free place holders in direct grant schools. Research on the social determinants of the capacity to profit from formal education is not sufficiently advanced to provide unequivocal guides to policy, and, of course, the problem of educational inequality is unlikely to be capable of solution through educational strategies alone. Nevertheless the Commission wished to inform itself of the most recent research carried out in Britain and elsewhere on the social determinants of educability in order to sensitise itself to the issues involved.

The social determinants of educability

The child's capacity to profit from formal education is determined by many factors which can be roughly grouped as follows:

Genetic	The influence of heredity.
Physiological	The influence of such factors as brain damage received at birth.
Psychological	The influence of interpersonal experiences such as the child's relationships with his parents.
Cultural	The influence of social experiences common to those reared in the same culture or subculture e.g. the lower working class subculture.
Structural	The influence of the availability of educational and occupational opportunities.
Material	The influence of such factors as poverty and housing conditions.
Ecological	The influence of the neighbourhood.

These groups of influences are not, of course, independent of each other, nor are the many variables which could be listed in each group independent of each other. They will often hang together and mutually reinforce each other. Thus a child with a relatively poor intellectual inheritance will often be born into a family experiencing material poverty, living in what we would now call a priority area, having little opportunity for social mobility, and transmitting to its children a set of cultural perspectives which do not emphasise educational success and therefore fail to motivate the child to take advantage of formal education. But although there is some tendency for these factors to occur together in patterns, they may also have different relative effects upon the educability of different individuals. Thus in one case genetic factors might be paramount, in another psychological factors might produce a personality pattern very low in achievement motivation, whilst in yet another pattern the emphasis on educational achievement in the middle class subculture might lead a child reared in such a culture to overachieve educationally relative to his measured intelligence. A major difference of opinion exists between those who believe genetic factors to be the major determinants of educability and those who believe that the influence of the environment is paramount. This 'nature-nurture' controversy has a long history, but the most recent debate has been stimulated by the emphasis on hereditary factors by Professor Arthur Jensen of California (Jensen, 1969a, 1969b) and has been conducted largely in the pages of *Harvard Educational Review* during 1969. In recent years, however, the tendency has been to focus less upon this basic intractable problem in favour of attempting to unravel various environmental influences over and above the influences which may be due to genetic endowment since environmental influences are at least theoretically amenable to modification through social action (see Bloom, 1964; Wiseman, 1964; Meade and Parkes, 1966; Butcher, 1968; Swift, 1968). These social influences upon educability can be grouped into four major areas of influence: family, peer group, neighbourhood and school.

The family

The family milieu influences both ability and motivation. Families differ considerably in the degree to which they create an environment in which the skills of reasoning, remembering, exploring and imagining are stimulated. They also differ greatly in the degree to which they succeed in inculcating high aspirations towards academic achievement. These differences generally correspond to the position of the family in the social class structure. *Social class* has been a central concept in the study of educability for, as one sociologist (Kohn, 1963) has expressed it: 'Members of different social classes, by virtue of enjoying (or suffering) different conditions of life, come to see the world differently—to develop different conceptions of social reality, different aspirations and hopes and fears, different conceptions of the desirable.' Social class is usually assessed in terms of occupation, and although this is a rather crude measure it is probably the best available objective indicator of that complex of cultural factors—language, perceptions, aspirations, values, life styles—which are shared by people from the same social stratum. These cultural factors have been the main focus of recent research on the determinants of educability, especially as they influence the child's intellectual skills and his motivation to achieve. Research on the cultural impoverishment of lower working class families has shown how this can inhibit the intellectual development of the child (see e.g. Deutsch, 1963; Triandis, 1964; Wiseman, 1968). Parental attitudes are known to have an important influence upon the child's motivation (see e.g. Floud, Halsey and Martin, 1956; Fraser, 1959; Douglas, 1964; Department of Education and Science, 1967), and recently sociologists have been concerned with the fundamental value patterns of which attitudes towards education are a specific manifestation. Attention has been focussed upon class differences in such value orientations as time perspectives (emphasis on the present or on the future), the relationship between man and his environment (emphasis on passively accepting life as it comes or on actively manipulating the environment), and relationships with family on origin (emphasis on family centredness or on independence of family and mobility). A considerable amount of American research has indicated the educational importance of these value orientations. In Britain Jayasuriya (1960) and Sugarman (1966) have demonstrated the general relationship between parental occupation, value perspectives and children's school achievements, but it is interesting to note that the relationship was less clear for grammar school pupils which perhaps indicates the greater homogeneity of middle class values amongst grammar school children whatever their class of origin. In general it is the children of parents who hold middle class values—those who are ambitious, plan ahead, defer immediate gratification, etc.—who succeed at school. A reasonably high I.Q. and the possession of middle class values tend to go together, but there is some evidence in the literature that the possession of a high I.Q. can lead a child from a home in which middle class values do not prevail to develop an academic self-image which enables him to overcome the disadvantages of home background, but even so the child probably needs the positive encouragement of the school and a family and a peer group which are at least not discouraging. Value differences do not only occur *between* social classes but also *within* them. Thus Kahl (1953) demonstrated that differences in aspiration towards college-going amongst a group of American adolescents from the same social class (i.e. skilled manual) and of the same general level of ability could be attributed to value differences between the parents, which can be roughly described as the difference of emphasis between 'getting by' and 'getting on'. But family values were not completely predictive of college-going aspirations and it would appear that in the case of some boys ability acted as an independent factor. In this country Swift (1967) has shown that within a middle class sample there was a clear positive relationship between the degree of fathers' pessimism about the opportunity structure of Britain and their own chances of upward mobility and the success of their children in the 11+ examination. The pessimistic fathers were largely clerical workers who were knowledgeable about the opportunity structure and keenly aware of the importance of paper qualifications, but at the same time they did not necessarily create a cultured environment for their children.

Thus values, and the aspirations and ambitions which stem from them, to some extent help to account for differences between and within social classes in the degree to which children succeed at school. But there are dangers in overestimating their influence, and Turner (1964) has suggested that the value differences between social classes may not be as great as is sometimes believed. The emphasis on value differences and the patterns of socialisation which lead to these can sometimes serve to underestimate the importance of the opportunities for social mobility which exist in society. Moreover, it has been pointed out (Empey, 1966) that aspiration should be seen as relative to an existing position in the occupational structure. Thus the child of an unskilled worker who aspires to take an apprenticeship leading to a skilled occupation may be relatively more ambitious than the son of a doctor who wishes to follow his father's profession. There has been an emphasis throughout this section on the importance of social class differences, but it should be borne in mind that ethnic, religious or other cultural factors which do not have their basis in social class can play a vital role in determining educability, as in the case of the high academic aspirations of Jewish children. Finally it should be noted that the emphasis in this section has been upon *subcultural* differences, but in many cases the *psychological* determinants of educability, for example patterns of family relationships occurring at all social class levels, will be the decisive influence. This is well-illustrated in a study by Harrington (1964) which demonstrated for most of the families in the sample a relationship between father's experience of occupational mobility and parental emphasis on either the father's or the children's careers, but some families did not fall into these sociological patterns and their child-rearing practices could be explained only in terms of the personality of one or other of the parents which was in some cases pathological. It would appear from the literature on the achievement motive (usefully summarised in Klein, 1965; Swift, 1966; and Banks, 1968) that this may have two origins, subcultural and psychological, and that there is not necessarily any close connection between the two.

Clearly subcultural differences in values arise from different patterns of socialisation and there is a considerable literature on class differences in child-rearing practices (see Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Kohn, 1964; Banks, 1968). One of the most significant contributions to the study of socialisation and its implications for education success has been that of Bernstein (1961, 1965). Bernstein has pointed out that differences in speech forms, which are culturally and not individually determined, create distinctive forms of relationship with the environment. Speech marks out what is relevant, and differences in speech forms mark out different aspects of reality as being important to the individual. Thus differences in language structure may mark out the present or the future, the self or the group, the concrete or the abstract as having prime significance. The child who has access to the *elaborated code* who is usually from the middle class, or a family taking the middle class as a reference group, has an advantage over the child from the lower working class with access only to the *restricted code* in terms of the skills and the motivations which are strategic for educational success. The research findings of Bernstein's unit are now in the process of being published (Robinson and Rackstraw, 1967; Bernstein and Young, 1967; Bernstein and Young, 1969). Relating the considerable body of educability research, which has only been very briefly reviewed here, to the position regarding the direct grant grammar school, we can make the following points:

(a) The social determinants of educability outlined above account for the direct relationship between social class and free place admissions. Academic achievement is to some extent a function of social experience so that selection by academic achievement alone will result in selection by social class.

(b) Children of fathers in social classes III, IV and V are under-represented in direct grant schools in terms of the proportions of these classes in the total population. In the light of the research into the social determinants of educability the handicaps of children from classes IV and V are so great that the presence of even small proportions in the direct grant school requires some explanation. No available data provide this explanation and one must assume that they have had an unusual innate ability leading them to adopt an academic self-image which has been supported by their families and/or they come from atypical Class III, IV and V families in terms of psychological milieu or the cultural background of mother, father or both.

(c) As one moves along the parental social class gradings of pupils in the direct grant schools from Class I to Class V, one finds that the lower the social class the greater the tendency to leave early (Appendix 6, Section 3, Table 6) and the lower the percentages getting 8 or more 'O' levels and 3 or more 'A' levels (Appendix 6, Section 3, Table 14). This conforms with what one might expect from the educability research. It could be a function of the lower abilities and/or aspirations of pupils from the lower social classes. The 'culture-conflict' hypothesis is probably far too over-simplified to account for this finding which is likely to be the outcome of a variety of cultural influences still functioning to depress the relative achievements of working class pupils even when they have gained admission to direct grant schools. In this respect the direct grant schools are typical of all grammar schools (Committee on Higher Education, 1963 Appendix 1). Of course direct grant schools themselves vary considerably, and some indication of the relative holding power of schools of different types can be seen in Appendix 6, Section 3, Table 2.

Peer group

Although the family exerts a crucial influence upon the intellectual competences of the child, outside the family the peer group often has a significant effect upon the individual's motivation towards academic achievement. Very briefly stated the process is that adolescent peer groups are likely to emerge on the basis of shared values and the member, or aspirant member, tends to conform to these values in order to enjoy the support of the group. If the peer group values academic achievement, the conforming member or aspirant is likely to develop a high academic motivation, but if a low valuation is placed upon academic achievement the reverse will be the case. There has been a considerable amount of research on the values of adolescent groups in the United States, but the results are somewhat equivocal. Gordon (1957) and Coleman (1963) reported that status in the adolescent culture was determined by athletic prowess for boys and social achievement for girls, but on Coleman's own evidence there was a not insubstantial *academic* subculture in the schools which he studied and membership of the leading peer groups was not necessarily inimical to academic achievement. Moreover other research, e.g. Turner (1964), Riley, Riley and Moore (1961) suggests that a strong anti-academic culture does not exist amongst adolescents. It is also suggested that peer groups form on the basis of their members' ambitions and orientation to academic achievement whatever their social class background of origin—what Turner has termed *stratification by destination.*

The peer group has received far less research attention in this country. Here peer groups have been partly structured through the academic stratification of secondary schools and similar stratification within schools. Oppenheim (1955) in a study of clique formation in four London grammar schools showed that when indicating the characteristics of a desired friend, middle class boys tended to respond to the items indicating a commitment to school values more frequently than working class boys. But the research demonstrated that pupils did not choose their friends on the basis of social class background. Oppenheim suggests that 'a ready and friendly acceptance' by his middle class peers enables the working class child to adopt the values of the school. Sugarman (1967) has shown that pro- and anti-school peer groups can develop in both grammar and secondary modern schools. A recent study carried out by Ford (1968) showed that there was a close relationship between social class and stream in the comprehensive school, which she studied and that the streams were homogeneous in aspiration. There was a strong tendency for pupils to choose their friends from the same stream as themselves. House membership had no influence on choice at any ability level. When friendship choices were examined in a grammar and a secondary modern school for comparison with the comprehensive school, there was the hint that within-class choices were greater in the comprehensive school than in the grammar school—except for the bottom stream of the latter, thus confirming Oppenheim's early findings for the grammar school.

Ford remarks: 'We must question our belief that sending children of different abilities to the same school will *in itself* break down barriers of class in interpersonal relationships.' But it should be remembered that this study was carried out in only one comprehensive school. Another study of friendship and values in grammar, technical high and comprehensive schools (New, 1967) showed that in a 'community' comprehensive school with 21.2 per cent of pupils from the non-manual classes there was a self-preference of the middle class minority only in one A stream; there was no significant self-preference in any of the other eight forms.

One must at the same time consider the internal organisation of the school. As several studies have indicated streaming is a significant factor in peer-group affiliation. Hargreaves (1967) has demonstrated how friendship choices become polarised according to streaming in a secondary modern school and how two distinctive subcultures develop between different streams. And working on the same project Lacey (1966, 1969) demonstrated the process of polarisation in friendship choices and subcultures within a grammar school. At the present time the process of allocation to different schools and streams clearly structures peer group affiliations to a greater extent than in the American school, and we must await further studies in English comprehensive schools before we can speculate on the significance of peer group affiliation for aspiration and achievement.

In the absence of relevant research evidence we cannot make any generalisations about the role of the peer group in the direct grant school. One could perhaps expect to find that it had much in common with the role of the peer group in the maintained grammar school, that is a high degree of cross class friendship choices and groupings based upon common aspirations and achievements. Whether a process of polarisation leads to the emergence of different subcultures in the academically selective schools we have at present no way of knowing.

The neighbourhood and social mix

The social character of the catchment area of the school has an impact upon its social mix and hence upon the problems it faces and the results which it achieves. The importance of the 'neighbourhood effect' has been emphasised much more in the American than in the British literature. Studies carried out in the 1950s and in the early 1960s suggested that even when I.Q. and social class were controlled there remained differences in pupil aspirations and achievements which were attributable to the neighbourhood effect. Wilson (1959) demonstrated that working class children attending schools recruiting largely from middle class areas had higher aspirations and achievements than working class children attending schools in predominantly working class areas. Conversely middle class children attending schools in predominantly working class areas had lower aspirations and achievements than similar children attending schools in predominantly middle class areas. Rogoff (1961) demonstrated that when social class was controlled suburban high schools had higher mean achievements than city and small town schools. And Turner's (1966) study revealed that when I.Q., class and peer group influences were controlled there still appeared to be a neighbourhood effect upon college aspirations. However, there has been a strong challenge to the argument for a neighbourhood effect over and above the influence of social class and intelligence arising largely out of the work of Sewell and his associates. For example, Sewell and Armer (1966) analysed data on educational decision-making amongst a large sample of adolescents in order to determine the extent of the neighbourhood effect. They found that although there were large differences in the college plans of students from different neighbourhood classified according to occupational composition, when sex, intelligence and socio-economic status of family were controlled, the differences were considerably reduced. They suggest that the neighbourhood context adds little by way of influence except for certain subsamples. This dispute over the extent of the neighbourhood effect turns largely on methodological questions (Turner, Michael and Boyle, 1966) especially the problem of disentangling the influence of the neighbourhood from social class of parents, parental encouragement, pupil's intelligence, peer culture, and the influence of the school.

British studies of the environment of the school have focussed rather less than American studies on the social dimensions of the immediate catchment area of the schools. Such studies as there have been have tended to vary considerably in research style from Mays' (1962) community study carried out in Liverpool to Wiseman's (1964) sophisticated Manchester study of the relationship between measures of children's academic ability and measures of such demographic characteristics as persons per acre, death rates, T.B. rates, social class composition, etc. of the areas from which the children came. There have also been several reports showing variations between local education authorities on such criteria as the availability of grammar school places (Douglas, 1964), percentage of 17 year olds still in school (Committee on Higher Education, 1963), entry to higher education (Committee on Higher Education, 1963), staying-on in non-selective schools (Eggleston, 1966). Differences in achievement within a single local education authority have also been demonstrated. This is illustrated in the following piece of evidence submitted to the Robbins Committee by the West Riding Authority:

Academic performance of secondary school children in different areas of the West Riding of Yorkshire

Percentages

	Percentage of all children allocated to grammar schools	Percentage of those allocated to grammar schools who		
		Had I.Q. of 130 or more at 11+	Went to university	Went to Oxford or Cambridge
Area				
Coalfield	17·8	7·5	9·7	0·5
North	30·4	5·8	14·0	1·2
West	34·9	5·2	10·8	0·9

A study carried out by the Essex Local Education Authority (1962) was initiated by the discovery that the Authority was sending proportionately fewer of its grammar school pupils to university than the other Home Counties. The investigation revealed that taking pupils in single-sex, three stream grammar schools the Essex pupils did not appear to be of inferior ability when 'A' level achievements were compared. The difference appeared to be related to the social structure of the county. Essex was found to have a social class composition resembling the country as a whole, but compared with the other home counties it had a lower proportion of residents in the top two categories on the Registrar General's scale, and fewer occupied males with an educational life which had extended beyond the age of 20. The county was found to compare more favourably in terms of university entrance with Lancashire and the West Riding which had a class composition similar to its own.

A further tentative finding was that with some exceptions the size of the sixth form was lowest in the industrial areas, and that the largest sixth forms were found in areas with the lowest proportions of the population in Classes I and V (i.e. the extremes) of the Registrar General's scale. But this general pattern was modified in certain important respects. For example, an old-established Aided School attracted children from many miles which, the report claims, might explain the fact that the school sending the highest proportion of pupils to university was situated in that part of Essex with the highest proportion of unskilled workers.

In her investigation of factors influencing early leaving from grammar school Collins (1954) demonstrated an association between the proportion of unskilled workers in any given area and the tendency for pupils to leave early. She also noted that the geographical position of the town could have had a modifying influence on the effect of social class composition, in that county boroughs with high proportions of unskilled residents but with a low incidence of early leaving had less dense surrounding populations than those with a high incidence of leaving. The same research reveals that the twenty county boroughs with the lowest grammar school intake contained nine with no independent or direct grant school whereas the twenty with the highest intake contained eight boroughs with them.

The setting of the school would appear to have some influence upon aspiration and achievement although we cannot say with any degree of certainty what form this influence takes. Clearly it is not the ecological setting *in itself* which is the causal factor. The causal factor is likely to be the pattern of expectations predominant in an area. Where working class people are able to interact with middle class people, or their children interact at school, it is possible that their educational aspirations will be higher than when they do not have such opportunities for interaction. The cultural aspects of this are brought out in a number of community studies. For example, Willmott's (1963) study of Dagenham—a 'one-class' town—noted that little intellectual or cultural cross-fertilization could occur between children from different kinds of social background; a pattern perhaps reflected in the high incidence of early leaving in the borough. Eggleston (1966) reports the influence of the neighbourhood on the holding power of the school under the Leicestershire two-tier system. Transfer was highest in the middle class areas and lowest in the working class areas, but middle class children in middle class areas had a higher transfer rate than middle class children in working class areas; conversely working class children in middle class areas had a transfer rate higher than those from working class areas.

The following are the figures:

1964 Percentage of children transferring from high to upper school	Superior suburb	Inferior suburb
Children of middle class parents	89·2	77·5
Children of working class parents	59·1	30·0

Eggleston also investigated the degree to which in the Leicestershire scheme there were class differences in the transfer of A stream pupils. He found that whereas 95 per cent of the middle class children transferred to the upper school only 75 per cent of working class children did so. He writes:

> 'the picture is reminiscent of the pattern of differential early leaving, once characteristic of the grammar schools. In most grammar schools the holding-power of the school organisation has now overcome this problem. The open Leicestershire Plan schools, lacking such developed holding-power, appear to have to rely more fully on the holding-power which can be applied externally by the values of family and neighbourhood. In consequence they seem unable to hold all of even their most able pupils if they lack external support for continued education.'

It would also appear that administrative policies can also have an impact upon the achievement of pupils. This can be demonstrated at several levels.

The importance of catchment area for the relative incidence of very bright children in comprehensive schools has been underlined in an 'exercise' carried out by a former Chief Education Officer of Leeds (Taylor, 1965). The exercise relates to the northern part of Leeds where the better-off families tend to be housed. It is assumed that the children of this area would be educated in nine schools each with an eleven form entry with, as far as possible, a social cross-section being admitted to each school. The areas contributing to these schools are briefly described as follows:

A. A post-war housing estate together with an area of owner occupied houses.

B. As above with a small number of owner occupied houses.

C. Pre-war housing estates, together with a largish area of good back-to-back houses, and a small amount of unsatisfactory property.

D. A very good large residential area and a small post-war housing estate.

E. A very good residential area, a large post-war estate and a small pre-war estate.

F. A completely mixed area.

G. A good residential area with several smallish post-war housing estates.

H. A residential area, post-war and pre-war housing estates, together with some old property.

I. The second (after F) most completely mixed area.

The actual composition by ability (based upon verbal reasoning) of children who would have been admitted in the preceding year to the nine hypothetical schools is as follows:

School	130+	120+	110+	109–90	80+	70+	Less than 70	Total pupils
A	11	38	50	189	41	16	3	348
B	3	22	60	171	64	17	2	339
C	5	19	61	156	70	32	8	351
D	25	73	106	134	10	2	—	350
E	27	76	64	151	28	6	—	352
F	20	40	52	127	50	31	6	326
G	17	59	83	155	47	15	6	382
H	8	39	65	153	49	16	8	338
I	15	42	69	164	61	20	5	376

One implication of breaking down these schools into smaller units is that there would be very few children with high I.Q.s in some schools. This can be seen from the following table which divides schools B and D into two units each:

School	130+	120+	110+	109–90	80+	70+	Less than 70	Total pupils
B1	2	4	19	91	30	5	—	150
B2	1	18	41	80	34	12	2	189
D1	11	26	42	71	3	—	—	153
D2	14	47	64	63	7	2	—	197

Taylor's discussion ends as follows:

> 'The educational equivalent of 'progressive patient care' or what is the same thing, provision for individual learning, is one practical approach. This will necessitate a smaller pupil-staff ratio than exists at present or a greater dependence on technical aids (closed circuit television, programmed learning, language laboratories) which are still in their infancy. Another approach is to make special provision for high-flyers and slow learners.'

The school

Hitherto we have been concerned with the 'inputs' of schools e.g. pupils' I.Q.s, social class background, degree of parental support. The next question which must be raised is whether the school has an independent effect upon pupils. More specifically the question is: Given the same inputs, are some forms of school structure, climate or method more effective than others with some, or with all, pupils? Of course the general answer is that the school *does* make a difference, although it is very difficult at the present time to say with any degree of certainty which dimensions of the school make this difference.

Judgements are made far more frequently on the basis of subjective experience rather than of objective evidence. In his extensive study of educational inequality in the United States (Coleman, 1966) argues that his evidence would indicate that the output of the school in terms of pupil-achievement is vastly more dependent upon its input rather than its structure and processes, but Coleman's conclusions have not remained unchallenged.

The view that the quality of the school itself is an important determinant of its output has been forcibly put in evidence to the Commission. It has been argued that direct grant schools have a distinctive beneficent quality, but this has usually been supported by reference to input factors such as pupil ability, parental support and independence of local education authorities rather than to the internal characteristics of the school. No evidence was available on this question. Indeed, although it is widely believed that (adapting Marshall McLuhan's terminology) 'the organisation is the message' in that children learn from and through forms of school organisation in subtle ways, generalisation is a hazardous task at the present time in spite of a voluminous literature and growing body of research. The following are some examples of the dimensions of the school which have been studied together with references to useful reviews of the research: size (Campbell, 1965), streaming (Yates, 1966), school structure (Robbins and Miller, 1969), bureaucracy (Punch, 1969), administrative climate (Halpin, 1967), pupil culture (Boocock, 1966).

It must be admitted, however, that although this body of research contains quite significant single findings and some useful case studies Hargreaves (1967), King (1969), Lacey (1969), Ford (1969), we are not in a position at the present time to derive unequivocal policy guides to school organisation from these studies. Most of the dimensions investigated are interrelated and it is difficult to study these at one time. Thus it is probably just as important to investigate administrative climate as the effects of de-streaming since the quality of this climate may determine staff attitudes towards de-streaming and hence influence its effectiveness. Another problem is to develop standard measures of school dimensions in order that research may be replicated. Finally, standard measures of school output are needed if the effects of the school are to be compared in different settings.

Although not strictly related to school organisation, research into the effects of teacher expectations on pupil achievement can be mentioned. It would appear that a self-fulfilling prophecy tends to operate in schools whereby pupils live up to (or down to) the expectations held of them. The most famous study of the influence of teacher expectations is that of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), who demonstrated that children whose names had in fact been randomly selected considerably improved their test performance when it was predicted that they would do so. (This research, has not, however, been without its critics.) Clearly the relevance of this research is that not only does formal streaming or informal stratification according to assumed ability lead to differential expectations, self-concepts, and hence motivations and achievements, but even within the classroom the stratification of children within the mind of the teacher can have the same effect.

Conclusion

The research considered in this section on the sociology of learning does not relate directly to the question of the best means of integrating direct grant schools into a comprehensive system. It is, however, the material which is most frequently used in support of such educational reforms as comprehensivisation, the optimisation of social mix, the internal reorganisation of schools in the direction of greater flexibility and less stratification by ability, and the development of more flexible teaching methods.

COMPREHENSIVE EDUCATION

Perhaps the most fundamental question concerning British education at the present time, and one which was of central concern to the Commission, is whether the comprehensive system yields benefits higher than those of the tripartite system. This is a tremendously complex question which could only be answered through a research project large enough to consider all the many variables involved. No such research exists, nor is likely to exist. At the present time the N.F.E.R. is carrying out a large-scale study of comprehensive schools, but this is concerned only with comparisons between different types of comprehensive school and not with evaluating the comprehensive school against other types of school. Monks (1968a) reports the findings of the first part of this research which relates largely to the structure of the comprehensive schools and their intake. The same writer (Monks, 1968b) has usefully summarised recent British research relating to comprehensive schools. The best evidence available to the Commission, therefore, is contained in a number of single-handed research projects, often carried out by candidates for higher degrees. In considering this evidence the Commission kept in mind the fact that small scale research of this kind carried out on a limited number of schools could not obtain adequate samples nor control all the variables necessary to make a truly valid comparison between schools of different types.

Intake

Evidence from many sources confirms the belief that comprehensive schools are not recruiting children with abilities proportionate to the general distribution throughout the population as a whole. However, the pattern varies between authorities and between schools. For the country as a whole Monks (1968a) records that generally speaking the 11–18 comprehensive schools have a markedly lower percentage of Group X pupils (i.e. the top 20 per cent in ability) than have other types of comprehensive school with an 11–plus intake, and the more urban the authority the lower the intake of X children. At the other end of the scale, about one school in five admitted a higher percentage of Group Z pupils (i.e. the lowest 20 per cent in ability) than might have been expected. But Monks notes that a feature of the intake of the schools was the number of Group Y pupils (i.e. the middle 60 per cent in ability); 34 per cent of schools received more of these pupils than might have been expected, yet only 12 per cent were in areas with a similarly large proportion of Group Y children.

There is also considerable evidence from various pieces of research that the clientele of comprehensive schools tends to contain a larger proportion of children having semi-skilled and unskilled fathers and a smaller proportion of children having skilled, clerical and professional fathers than the population as a whole. This is confirmed for the country as a whole by Monks' data.

Social and cultural factors

Miller (1961) compared the school values of four groups of 13–14 year old boys, viz. grammar, 'comprehensive grammar', secondary modern, and 'comprehensive modern'. He drew the following conclusions from his data:

(a) Both groups of comprehensive pupils were in closer agreement in their appreciation of the value of both academic and practical subjects than the pupils in the segregated schools. But Miller warns that this cultural unity is not an inevitable outcome of comprehensive education.

(b) The leisure interests of the comprehensive modern pupils were more worthwhile than those of their secondary modern counterparts, whilst the leisure interests of the more able comprehensive pupils had not been adversely affected. But again Miller warns that simply bringing pupils of different abilities together is probably not sufficient to guarantee cross-fertilisation.

(c) Both groups of comprehensive pupils thought equally highly of their school and its courses, and this matched the feelings of the grammar school pupils. But the secondary modern pupils thought less highly of their schools, its courses and its standing in the community.

(d) The effect of the comprehensive school in promoting greater social interaction between social classes and ethnic groups was not clear.

Miller notes a number of qualifications which have to be borne in mind when interpreting his findings, including the problem of matching the schools in terms of facilities etc., and the possibility that as an innovation the comprehensive school could generate a higher morale than established types of school.

Currie (1962) studied boys and girls aged 14–15 who were pupils in three comprehensive, three grammar and three secondary modern schools. He demonstrated that compared with pupils from grammar and modern schools, the comprehensive school pupils showed less emotional upset, were less discouraged, and reported stronger satisfactions with their school work. Currie claims that it is wrong to evaluate the relative success or failure of different types of school according to the same criteria since it can be argued that grammar and secondary modern schools are performing different types of function.

Dixon (1962), in his study of a streamed comprehensive school in a predominantly working class area of London, reports that children from higher social class backgrounds had more chance of initial selection for higher streams and of obtaining promotion, and that even within the more selective groups school achievement was related to social background. But premature leaving was at a low level and candidates for external examinations included some from the lower ranges of ability in the 11–plus selection. Although this was a predominantly working class school, Dixon reports that there was a formal mixing of pupils from different social classes in academic and in two extra-curricular activities (i.e. soccer and chess) but there is no indication of the degree of actual interaction between pupils from the different classes.

Holly (1963) also studied a single London comprehensive school. He demonstrated that pupils from social classes I and II were more likely to be placed in the upper streams on entry, and that in attendance, promotion, length of school life and examination this initial advantage is improved upon at every level of ability. The converse was true of pupils from social classes IV and V. Class differences are also revealed in prefectship and involvement in extra-curricular activities. Ford (1968) in her work cited earlier showed that interaction between pupils of different social classes was no greater, and possibly less, in comprehensive schools as compared with the grammar school. It should be noted that the comprehensive school was streamed.

With the exception of the findings of Currie (1962), which might be accounted for by the geographical setting of his sample schools, existing research would appear to indicate that comprehensive schools are more successful than segregated schools of all types when considered together in inducing the desire for longer school life amongst their pupils (Miller, 1961; Griffin, 1969). It would appear from Eggleston's (1967) study of voluntary staying on in eight Midlands authorities that the comprehensive schools had, in fact, a greater holding power than segregated schools.

Attainment

Comparative studies of attainment between pupils in different types of school are rather difficult to design. One reason is that there have until recently been very few comprehensive schools with a full range of academic ability. Another reason is that few researchers have had the resources to control all those dimensions of the school and its environment which could influence pupil attainment independently of whether the school was comprehensive, grammar or modern. A third reason is the difficulty involved in adequately comparing attainments in different subjects in different schools.

Evidence on the comparative examination achievements of comprehensive schools is difficult to interpret since analyses carried out at different times and on different samples of schools would appear to yield conflicting results. Pedley (1963) took five 'O' levels as the criterion of a 'good' G.C.E. and compared the results of a number of comprehensive schools with the national average of 10 per cent of pupils, mainly in grammar and secondary modern schools, obtaining this result. The figure for the fully comprehensive Isle of Man for the period 1959–62 was 16½ per cent. For Anglesey, another fully comprehensive area, the average for 1959–61 was over 14 per cent. Returns from twenty comprehensive schools from different parts of the country, some of them heavily creamed by grammar schools, revealed that 14 per cent of pupils entering the schools at the age of 11 in 1954 obtained a 'good' G.C.E. On the other hand Davis (1967) argues that Pedley's results were obtained before secondary modern schools began to enter large numbers of pupils for 'O' level, and claims that the results for I.L.E.A. schools for 1965 reveal no differences in the achievements of pupils from comprehensive and secondary modern schools. But Pedley's data reveal that during the period 1959–61 a 'good' G.C.E. was obtained by over 18 per cent of comprehensive school pupils in East Sussex, an authority in which G.C.E. courses were available at that time in its secondary modern schools. Comparisons of this sort are difficult to make unless one knows the presentation policies of the different kinds of school. If it is the case, as is sometimes suggested, that comprehensive schools enter relatively higher proportions of pupils for G.C.E. than secondary modern schools, they are likely to have lower proportions of candidates obtaining a 'good' result. One would also need to hold social class and I.Q. constant before valid comparisons of the achievements of different types of school could be made, but such information is not available at the present time.

Koshe (1957) compared intelligence, English and arithmetic amongst third form pupils in co-educational grammar, modern and comprehensive schools in comparable areas of London. Only one grammar school was considered in the study and the two comprehensive schools considered were both enlarged secondary modern schools with small selective streams. The pupils were matched on the basis of intelligence and attainment in English and arithmetic. The major findings were:

(a) Comprehensive boys were superior to modern school boys in arithmetic.

(b) Comprehensive girls were superior to modern school girls in arithmetic, English and I.Q.

(c) Boys in one of the two comprehensive schools were better than grammar school boys in arithmetic.

(d) Girls in the other of the two comprehensive schools were better than the grammar school girls.

(e) Girls in the grammar school were superior to comprehensive school girls in I.Q. and English.

Koshe notes that although these data can be interpreted as supporting the comprehensive school the results are not consistent and he suggests that the quality of the school and its staff is influential on attainment—especially for girls.

Griffin (1968) studied a random selection of 14–15 year olds drawn from co-educational modern (6), grammar (3), and comprehensive (3) schools in Staffordshire. The school catchment areas were matched and the comprehensive schools had a good academic range (losing only to direct grant schools). A careful examination was made of the achievements of children at different I.Q. levels and their attitudes to school. Her main conclusions are as follows:

> 'The application of the findings is limited by the size, location and organisation of the schools in the sample, but within those limitations it can be said that:
>
> 1. Midlands suburban comprehensive schools provided a stimulating environment for children of all levels of ability.
> 2. Little difference was found in attainment in English between the three types of school organisation.
> 3. Brighter pupils expressed better attitudes to school in comprehensive schools than in grammar schools, this being particularly true in the case of girls. The attitude to school of girls of average and above average ability in secondary modern schools also appeared good.
> 4. The findings support the hypotheses proposed by Miller (1961) that the comprehensive school helps to overcome the disparity of esteem for different types of school organisation, has a unifying effect on morale and has a stronger holding power.'

Finally, there is evidence that pupils allocated to grammar schools at 11 tend to improve their intelligence and standardised attainment scores in the early years of secondary education whilst the scores of pupils allocated to secondary modern schools tend to decline (Vernon, 1960; Committee on Higher Education, 1963). But there is some evidence that children allocated to comprehensive schools improve their test scores, for example Sinha (1963) found that pupils in three comprehensive schools had an average gain of 6 I.Q. points between the ages of 11 and 13 or 14.

Conclusion

With so little research available upon the comprehensive school any firm conclusions would be unwarranted. However, as a very tentative generalisation from the available research one can say that although comprehensive schools are not yet recruiting their full quota of children from each ability grouping and social class category, the attitudes and attainments of their pupils in general appear to be somewhat superior to comparable groups in the segregated schools. On the other hand we know little about the progress of very intelligent children, the sort of pupil that the comprehensive school might recruit in greater numbers under the terms of reference of the Commission. It is also clear from this limited research that the viability of the comprehensive school is likely to depend at least as much upon its internal qualities as upon the fact that it is a comprehensive school. This is reinforced by a study carried out by Ford (1969) which was published too late for discussion in the original working papers. It is a study of a London comprehensive school and, for purposes of comparison, of a grammar and a secondary modern school. It revealed that the comprehensive school was having no greater success in achieving its assumed goals e.g. the provision of greater equality of opportunity for those with equal ability, widening the occupational horizons of pupils, a greater mixing of children from different social classes, etc. than the tripartite schools. But the school was streamed by ability and, the author points out, dramatic changes could not really be expected whilst comprehensive schools continue to act as selection agencies for occupation.

GIFTED CHILDREN AND THEIR SCHOOLS

The historical fact that some direct grant schools have been particularly concerned with the education of highly intelligent children made it necessary for the Commission to consider such questions as the nature of giftedness and methods of educating gifted children. The fundamental problem is whether the abilities of gifted children are best developed if they are taught in special schools. Again existing research gives no unequivocal answer to this question and can only reveal the issues involved in policy decisions.

Criteria of giftedness

Many criteria of giftedness have been suggested, but perhaps the most common has been based upon I.Q. score. The actual I.Q. score which has been held to mark a gifted child has varied with different investigators, but an I.Q. of 140 has perhaps been most widely suggested as the cut-off point. However, recent work—especially by J. P. Guilford and his associates at the University of Southern California—has demonstrated that intellect has many dimensions. Guilford's model of ability factors suggests that abilities vary (a) by the psychological operation involved e.g. cognition, memory, (b) by the kind of content e.g. symbolic, semantic and (c) by the products or forms which the information takes e.g. classes, relations. He identifies 5 operations, 6 products and 4 types of content thus yielding, according to his three dimensional model, 120 potentially different abilities, (Guilford, 1967). On the question of the gifted Guilford writes:

> 'And which children should be regarded as gifted? The current answer, at least in many places, is the student with a high I.Q. and with high grades (the two indicators usually strongly correlated). Such children may be those who please their teachers most because they learn more rapidly under conditions that call for uniformity of thinking and acting within a group. The creative child, who may be higher in divergent-thinking abilities and not so high in cognitive abilities emphasised in present tests and examinations, may be a source of annoyance and not recognised as gifted. And how many children who are potential composers or artists, who are very high in concrete intelligence but not so high in academic intelligence, are missed when the 'gifted child' is selected.'

Many of the early writers on intelligence recognised that as well as a general factor of intelligence there were also special abilities (e.g. musical, spatial) and a pragmatic approach to the gifted child (De Haan and Havighurst, 1961) suggests that at the upper end of the ability range, say the top 20 per cent, giftedness takes a number of forms. They identify the following:

(a) High level academic aptitude.
(b) Scientific aptitude.
(c) Superior talent in the arts.
(d) Social leadership.
(e) Mechanical ingenuity.

It is not clear, however, whether these are specific, perhaps innate, abilities which can be identified by prognostic tests, or whether they emerge as a result of *interest*. A recent British survey (Shields, 1968) holds that the intellectually gifted child is characterised by a high ability in observation, memory, reasoning, relational thinking and the knowledge and use of words, and that this ability is available in many situations.

In recent years it has been argued that an important form of giftedness is *creativity* which is relatively independent of intelligence and can be identified only by a different sort of test than the usual intelligence test. Guilford considers the following factors to be involved in creative thinking; sensitivity to problems, figural response flexibility, figural adaptive flexibility, word fluency, semantic spontaneous flexibility, associational fluency, originality, semantic elaboration, figural redefinition, symbolic redefinition, and semantic redefinition. In rather less technical terms McKinnon (1960, 1962) and his associates have described the creative person as intelligent, independent, curious, sceptical, emotionally committed to his work, energetic, aesthetically sensitive, introverted, a non-conformist in behaviour, and sometimes egotistical. They found that although creative people were intelligent, the level of intelligence did not determine the quality of a person's creativity. Above a threshold point of about 120 I.Q. there was little relation between creativity and a person's level of intelligence. In a widely discussed study, Getzels and Jackson (1962) reported an investigation which compared two groups of pupils from the university of Chicago Laboratory School. One group contained students who were in the top 20 per cent in I.Q. in this school with very able children, but not in creativity, whilst the other contained students in the top 20 per cent in creativity but not in I.Q. (high scorers on both criteria were eliminated). The two groups differed on a number of dimensions. The high creativity group were less conventional, less conformist to teachers' expectations, were less preferred as students by their teachers, were more imaginative and were divergent rather than convergent thinkers. The authors suggest that a distinction should be made between fast-learning high I.Q. students and students who are distinctively creative. In this country Hudson (1966, 1968) has carried out research on groups of public and grammar school boys of above-average ability. He formed two contrasting groups which he termed 'divergers' and 'convergers', a terminology which begs fewer questions than 'creative' and 'intelligent'. He found significant differences both in cognitive style and in attitudes between the groups. There was also a clear relationship between divergent thinking and choice of arts subjects, and between convergent thinking and choice of science subjects. Torrance (1963) has been particularly concerned with the identification of creativity in younger school children. He reports that if one selected the top 20 per cent of a school population on the basis of tests of creativity and separately on traditional measures of intelligence, the overlap would range from 23 to 52 per cent. Thus with an average of 33 per cent one would miss about 67 per cent of the upper 20 per cent on creative thinking using traditional measures of intellectual promise.

Torrance writes: 'Developers and users of measures of creative thinking have found little or no relationship between such measures and measures of intelligence, I.Q., scholastic aptitude, and the like.' But there are many who think that such a statement is an exaggeration in that there is a closer relationship between intelligence and creativity than this implies. The controversy continues and positions are taken on methodological grounds (see Butcher, 1968, Chapter 4 for discussion), but a widely-accepted middle position holds that whilst high intelligence is certainly an element in creative thinking of unusual quality a high I.Q. does not guarantee high creativity. The use of one test or the other would fail to identify all those of high creativity or high intelligence depending upon the test used. This is not to suggest that we are at the present time in a position to use tests of creativity for selection purposes on a large scale (Vernon, 1964).

The difficulties of identifying the gifted on a large scale is indicated by Pegnato (in Passow, 1962) who studied a range of procedures of identification and assessed their effectiveness (i.e. percentage of gifted children correctly located) and their efficiency (i.e. the ratio between the number nominated and the number correctly identified) against individual intelligence scores. His results can be summarised as follows:

	Effectiveness (%)	Efficiency (%)
Teacher ratings	45.1	26.6
Group intelligence tests	92.3	18.7
Group achievement tests	79.2	21.5
Honour roll	73.6	18.0

Pegnato's other findings can be summarised as follows:

Skill	No. of children identified as having the skill	No. of such children identified as also having high intellectual ability
Art	66	6
Music	71	8
Maths	179	50
Leadership	82	13

Pegnato recommends that a variety of techniques should be used to identify the gifted.

The intelligence test probably remains the most effective method of prognostication. Yet there are two disadvantages of using such a test for the purpose of selecting children for a super-selective school. The first is the problem of discriminating amongst the most able pupils. The usual intelligence tests can identify the top 5 per cent of pupils, but a subsequent retest is likely to show changes in rank order. If the tests were used to identify, say, the top 2 per cent the changes in rank order on re-test are likely to be considerable. The same would apply to standardised attainment tests for 11 year olds. A better discrimination could be achieved by using attainment tests designed for 13 or 14 year olds, but if some schools taught for these tests they would, in effect, become the feeder schools for the highly selective secondary schools. The second difficulty involved in the use of intelligence tests as predictors is that whereas these tests are reasonably accurate measures of *potential* there is so much more than academic potential at work in determining a particular level of attainment. Factors of interest, motivation and personality become increasingly significant during adolescence, and these are the factors which determine the degree and the manner in which potentiality is made actual. Although a high measured intelligence is associated with academic and occupational achievement it probably accounts for no more than half the variation in performance. Yet we are not in a position to use measures of non-intellectual factors such as assessments of personality, motivation and level of aspiration to *predict* who will most successfully use the opportunity for advanced academic work in a super-selective school because of individual and cultural differences in these attributes. There is a view amongst many psychologists, although not all, that there is, in terms of I.Q., a threshold (variously estimated between 115 and 125 points) above which achievement becomes increasingly a function of interest or motivation which are themselves influenced by family background, school, peer group or combinations of these. In short, although intelligence tests are moderately sound predictors of academic attainment it is unlikely that they would be highly effective in predicting which children, amongst the top levels of ability, could profit most from a super-selective school. Yet the evidence is that they would, even with these reservations, be more accurately predictive than group achievement tests and particularly more accurate than teacher ratings.

The careers of the gifted

One must inevitably begin any consideration of the careers of gifted children with a short account of Terman's monumental follow-up study of a sample of gifted individuals over a period of 40 years (Terman, 1925; Terman and Oden, 1947; Terman and Oden, 1959; Oden, 1968).

The sample consisted of 1,500 gifted Californian children identified during 1921–22 by intelligence tests and other methods (I.Q.=140+). 70 per cent of the children in the sample were pre-high school pupils with a mean age of 9.7 years and the remaining 30 per cent were high school pupils with a mean age of 15.2 years. The children were above the population average in physical development and in what we would now call mental health—although timidity and worrying were slightly more common. In the first follow-up study carried out in 1927–28 Terman found that the majority (74 per cent of boys and 84 per cent of girls) had maintained their original two-year acceleration in age-grade school placement. Their intelligence test scores had declined by 9 I.Q. points; the distribution of change in individual I.Q.'s was of greater significance than changes in means. School achievement remained high but there was some regression to the mean of the general population. The pupils participated in a wide range of extra-curricular activities, a wide range of specialised interests and abilities had developed, a personality rating by teachers placed them above average—although there had been some decline. Terman reported his second follow-up study in 1947. The sample had remained superior in physical development, educational achievement, intelligence and personal traits, but their superiority was less marked for traits of emotional stability and social adjustment. More than 90 per cent of the gifted boys and 86 per cent of the gifted girls entered college but 30 per cent of these failed to graduate. Average college grades were, on the whole, superior, but intellect and achievement were far from highly correlated. A comparison of the productive and non-productive groups within the sample showed the former to have greater persistence and self-confidence than the latter—differences explicable in terms of family background. The third follow-up reported in 1959 showed that members of the sample had high intellectual and vocational achievements, but 20 per cent had achieved nothing out of the ordinary. The majority continued to be socially well-adjusted. Oden (1968) compares the very considerable achievements of the top 100 of the group of 800 with the relatively low achievements of the bottom 100 many of whom, she reports, had deliberately opted out of the pursuit of success in favour of a happy life.

Terman's study has been criticised on the grounds of his initial selection, his controls, and the fact that he did not take account of the *social* superiority of his group. A number of less ambitious studies have been summarised by Hildreth (1966). A study by Hollingworth of 116 gifted children showed that although the groups went through high school and college with good records, a follow-up study after 30 years showed that few had become notable leaders or creative thinkers. Witty conducted a follow-up study of 50 gifted children between 1924 and 1940. The group was similar in many respects to that of Terman. Although the mean I.Q. of the group was 153, the mean educational quotient was 136 indicating a degree of relative 'educational retardation'. Hildreth made a follow-up comparison of graduates of the Lincoln School of Teachers' College, Columbia University. A mentally superior group of 52 with I.Q.'s of 130+ was compared with a group of 52 with I.Q.'s of less than

120. She reports that on the whole the higher ability group fulfilled their early promise, but 'some of the most promising, like those in Terman's group, are solid citizens but in no way remarkable.'

Another approach to the study of the gifted is to investigate the life experiences of men who have achieved eminence in some area of life. In her study of scientists Roe (1952, 1960) demonstrated that although the research scientist requires relatively high intelligence, this need not be very high for eventual success, a verbal ability of 120 I.Q. is suggested as a threshold. But she also shows that success as a scientist is greatly dependent upon a number of personality variables (e.g. curiosity, independence), high energy, and a particular cultural background ('it would help considerably to be born the oldest son in a white Protestant family, with well-educated parents, and father in a profession'). Similar conclusions have been reached by Miles (1960) in her study of 100 notables.

Nisbet and Gammie (1961) investigated a sample of Aberdeen children with I.Q.'s in excess of 135 at the stage of transfer to secondary schools. In the 4 years studied (1950–1953) a total of 159 pupils out of 2,700 had I.Q.'s of 135+. The matriculation records at Aberdeen University for the period 1956–1961 showed that 78 of these pupils had entered the University. As only a small proportion of pupils from Aberdeen schools go to other universities, it would appear that only 50 per cent of these highly intelligent pupils entered university. A study was made of the 16 out of 36 highly intelligent pupils in one year who did not enter university. Of these two were still at school, two left without taking the Scottish leaving certificate, eight failed to gain university entrance and four who could have entered university decided otherwise. The writers point out that it would be wrong to classify this group as 'wastage' until their careers had been followed up over a lengthy period. Those pupils who entered university predominantly had fathers in non-manual occupations, whereas those who did not had fathers largely in manual occupations.

The education of the gifted

There is considerable literature on the education of the gifted in different societies. The following are some of the most useful references: de Haan and Havighurst (1957, 1969); Wall (1960); Sumpton and Luecking (1960); Torrance (1960); Yearbook of Education (1961, 1962); Durr (1964); Gold (1965); Hildreth (1966).

Special provision for the gifted varies according to the ideological and structural characteristics of different societies. Generally speaking European societies have had elite secondary schools which have been academically and socially selective and have admitted approximately 20 per cent of the population at an age between 10 and 12. For the most part the highly gifted were included in the larger group and after initial selection giftedness became operationally defined in terms of the ability to clear successive hurdles on passing through the school and university system. Thus the problem of the very gifted was left to solve itself after the initial selection had been made. Most European societies are currently in the process of transforming their systems of secondary education into comprehensive ones and are thus slowly becoming faced with the problem of the gifted in such a system. In

Sweden, the country which has perhaps made the most radical attempt to introduce comprehensive secondary education, there is no attempt to differentiate the gifted at an early age. As children pass through the comprehensive school they become differentiated into broad bands of ability during the seventh, eighth and ninth years (i.e. between ages 13 and 16) and take courses of varying degrees of intellectual difficulty. This differentiation continues in the gymnasium and in higher education, thus the system allows for giftedness to emerge during the process of progressive differentiation and attention is now turning away from the structure of the secondary school system to methods of instruction. In those European countries which have only recently begun the transition to comprehensive secondary education giftedness is not yet seen as a central problem as the old selective system has been far from fully replaced. In France, for example, the 11–15 stage of education is intended as a period of observation, but children are differentiated by types of course and little interchange, in fact, occurs. The same is true of lycée education. Although the courses are differentiated into classical, modern, and technical, it is, in fact, the classical course which attracts the gifted children, and the lycées themselves are 'ranked' by the middle class parents which they serve. Thus, although the French are concerned to move towards a comprehensive system, the present barriers to this have meant that the education of the gifted has not yet excited much interest.

The situation is quite different in the U.S.S.R. and in the U.S.A. where the problem of educating the gifted in a comprehensive system has had to be faced more directly. The situation in Russia (Grant, 1968; Simon, 1969) is that the basic system of education is the common, neighbourhood-based eight-year school starting at the age of seven, but there are variations from this pattern to cater for the gifted. Perhaps the most publicised of these arrangements are the 4 university boarding schools in Moscow, Kiev, Leningrad and Novosibirsk. These schools cater for gifted children from rural areas only; children from urban areas are not qualified to apply. Recruitment is via academic olympiads and all children who win awards are eligible to apply for entry. Applicants sit an entrance test based upon the mathematics and physics syllabus of the 8-year school and this is followed by an oral examination of suitable candidates. In the Moscow school 150 pupils are recruited each year at the age of 15 or 16 to do a two year course. The pupils do the general school course with extra hours for special subjects under the direction of university staff. Russian schools are comprehensive until the end of Grade 8 (i.e. 15 years) when differentiation occurs and specialisation becomes possible. But some schools are biased towards particular courses from Grade 2 on the model of the established music and ballet schools. The largest number of these are biased towards languages, followed by those biased towards mathematics (there were 68 of the former and 45 of the latter in Moscow, and 34 and 10 respectively in Leningrad in 1967–68). These are neighbourhood schools and must recruit applicants from the immediate catchment area before offering places on a wider basis, the only criterion for entry to one of these schools, as opposed to an ordinary neighbourhood school, is good speech and good health since the schools follow the normal curriculum but have two to four additional hours from Grade 2. In general it would appear that the Russians are experimenting in dealing with the problem of the gifted with some form of differentiation after the age of 15 in boarding schools for the mathematically talented rural youth and with biasing by particular schools followed by differentiation after the age of 15 in the neighbourhood schools.

Owing to the decentralised character of American education, solutions to the problem of education of the gifted take on a much more varied character, and administrative definitions of 'giftedness' often include up to 20 per cent of the age-group. American practices can be classified under the headings of *grouping*, *acceleration* and *enrichment*, although these do not necessarily occur independently. Differential grouping can occur according to school, class and extra-mural activities. There are, in fact, few schools for the gifted in the United States and existing ones tend to be located in New York. These include such schools as the Bronx High School of Science and the Brooklyn Technical High School, which enrol students on a selective basis at the eighth grade for courses with a special bias towards science and mathematics, and the High School of Performing Arts which enrols students who have not only demonstrated high aptitudes in dance and drama but have also high scholastic ability and all round achievement. More common is the use of special classes in the common high schools which vary from 'streaming' on the basis of all-round intellectual ability to special advanced placement classes in particular subjects. Again New York has been more committed to these arrangements than most other cities. During 1961–62 there were 38 high schools with 135 classes in all subject areas in the Advanced Placement Programme. Another approach is to release gifted children, perhaps with I.Q. of 120 and above, from some normal classes to pursue their special interests. These released-time programmes are often linked with the provision of seminars in the areas of mathematics, English and science. Other patterns include evening and Saturday classes conducted by local professional scientists, and summer programmes in colleges and universities. *Acceleration* is a form of grouping whereby gifted children are permitted to skip particular grades with a view to entering college early, at the age of about 17. These programmes are often organised jointly with colleges. For example, the Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh has co-operated with local public high schools in setting up advanced placement courses in English, social studies, mathematics and science, with Carnegie professors giving instruction in the high schools.

Basically enrichment programmes allow the gifted child to explore a subject in greater depth or greater breadth—there are two concepts of enrichment—than his less able colleagues. The process has been described as one of 'getting ahead sideways'. This can be achieved within the regular class or through special arrangements and special classes. The most common forms are special assignments, projects, supervised correspondence study and the provision of extra materials such as laboratory equipment. Enrichment without segregation or acceleration has been favoured by many teachers perhaps because it avoids the problems of rigid selection.

It is impossible to enumerate all the varied approaches to the education of the gifted in the United States. There is considerable debate over the merits and demerits of particular schemes, and although there has been a considerable amount of research on these one cannot say which appear to be the most beneficial to the gifted. The education of the gifted in the United States remains, even now, in an experimental stage, but in general one can say that opinion is in favour of special programmes for the gifted rather than for super-selective schools.

The super-selective school

One of the major questions regarding the education of very able pupils is whether the advantages of educating them together in special schools outweighs the disadvantages. Snow (1968) argues the advantages of a 'critical mass' whereby the achievements of the gifted pupil are stimulated by contact with his intellectual peers. It can be argued, on the other hand, that if such a 'critical mass' entails large schools catering wholly for gifted pupils the formal or informal hierarchies of intellect in such schools would serve to depress the intellectual self-images of all but the top-most pupils and hence lead to overall under-achievement. No existing research evidence can resolve this problem, but in order to throw some light on this question data from the Sixth Form Project* were re-analysed by Mr. T. Christie and Mrs. A. Griffin who adopted two approaches to the problem.

The first approach involved identifying 5 elite schools on the basis of 'O' level performance and examining the extent to which this superiority was maintained at 'A' level thus giving some indication of the capacity of these schools to advance the achievements of their highly intelligent pupils in the sixth form. The 5 schools were identified on the basis of the average 'O' level grades in 1962 of those pupils who were to take at least 3 'A' level subjects two years later. This average 'O' level grade—scaled from 0–100 with a pass mark of 45—takes account of all subjects attempted and is weighted by the popularity of the subjects. These average grades are assumed to provide an index of the general ability of the pupils. The 5 schools thus identified included 3 direct grant and 2 maintained grammar schools. The average 'A' level results of these schools—scaled 0–6— are compared with the average results obtained in a sample of 26 direct grant schools and 38 boys' maintained schools located mainly in the Northern and Midlands regions. The 5 elite schools achieved 'A' level results which were higher than the average of all the schools in the sample, but as Table 1 indicates they were, in general, unable to maintain their 'O' level superiority. It is interesting to note that direct grant school 2, which succeeded in improving its comparative ranking between 'O' and 'A' level, is itself well inside the catchment area of a highly selective and prestigious school.

The second approach compared the changes in performance between 'O' and 'A' level of elite schools (as judged on 'O' level performance) with the top and bottom quartiles of a sample of 94 schools. The lowest grade in the top quartile and the highest grade in the bottom quartile were determined for the referent sample of schools. These grades were then used as cut-off points for the dependent sample of elite schools.

It can be seen from Table 2 that in both arts and science subjects the elite schools have a higher proportion above the cut-off mark for the top quartile of the referent schools and a considerably lower proportion below the cut-off mark for the bottom quartile at both 'O' and 'A' levels. But it can also be seen that the relative proportion above the cut-off mark for the top quartile decreases between 'O' and 'A' levels, and the relative proportion below the

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* This project is sponsored by the Department of Education and Science and is being carried out in the Department of Education, University of Manchester under the direction of Professor R. A. C. Oliver. The complete results of this project will be published in due course, but data was made available by the kind permission of Professor Oliver and the Department of Education and Science.

Table 1

'O' level grade and rank and 'A' level grade and rank of five elite 'O' level schools

	Direct grant 1				Direct grant 2				Boys maintained 1				Direct grant 3				Boys maintained 2			
	'O' level	rank	'A' level	rank	'O' level	rank	'A' level	rank	'O' level	rank	'A' level	rank	'O' level	rank	'A' level	rank	'O' level	rank	'A' level	rank
English	68·14	1	3·29	20	61·63	4	3·50	15	65·57	2	3·80	10	58·77	8	2·45	44	58·75	9	4·25	2
History	67·04	1	3·97	12	56·85	13	4·17	8	63·61	2	4·00	9	60·19	4	2·43	54	58·68	9	2·67	38
Geography	62·40	2	3·67	26	60·13	3	4·60	6	64·38	1	4·40	10	56·48	11	4·25	17	52·58	26	5·00	1
French	68·18	1	4·65	2	60·21	8	4·67	1	59·71	10	4·14	5	61·95	3	3·44	28	63·84	2	3·43	29
Latin	74·01	1	5·11	3	60·63	16	5·00	4	*	*	*	*	65·17	4	2·75	34	63·25	9	1·67	44
German	68·90	1	3·71	6	65·63	2	4·17	1	56·11	17	1·75	25	61·67	3	2·50	15	60·63	6	2·33	16
Mathematics	67·74	1	4·50	2	66·23	2	5·40	1	60·96	13	3·29	26	64·50	3	4·00	9	60·64	14	3·90	10
Physics	67·52	1	4·46	3	61·55	7	4·04	7	61·75	5	2·88	38	63·09	3	4·53	2	60·42	9	3·09	34
Chemistry	67·74	1	4·13	8	60·85	7	5·00	1	61·95	5	2·75	43	62·58	2	4·84	2	60·37	10	2·67	50
Biology	63·15	3	2·80	15	53·88	28	4·11	5	60·91	4	2·75	17	55·66	17	2·45	27	*	*	*	*
Mean rank		1·3		9·7		9·0		4·9		6·5		20·3		5·9		23·2		10·3		24·9

* No candidates

cut-off mark for the bottom quartile increases between 'O' and 'A' levels. For both groups the change is statistically significant. Table 3 shows the results of repeating this procedure when the dependent population consists of those direct grant schools with the highest 'O' level calibre in the Arts sixth and the Science sixth treated separately. (In fact the same schools occupied the top 5 positions in both lists.) It can be seen that although there is a significant deterioration on the Arts side, these schools have succeeded in reducing the deterioration of the Science side to a point which is not statistically significant.

Table 4 reverses the comparison by taking the top and bottom quartiles of the elite direct grant schools as the criterion and examining the changes in relative proportions between 'O' and 'A' levels for the other 94 schools. The general superiority of the elite schools is again seen, but it can also be seen that the non-elite sample improves its position relative to the elite sample between 'O' and 'A' levels.

Two criticisms of this study might be advanced. One is that 'A' level performance is an inappropriate criterion for the effectiveness of super-elite schools. Yet no other criterion is easily available. The other is that the reported findings are simply evidence of a regression to the mean between 'O' and 'A' levels. In answer to this question we can quote the authors of the paper:

> 'Regression to the mean is taken care of at the pupil level in this design since the same pupils are not necessarily involved in a given quartile at both 'O' and 'A' level. Errors of selection as a result of the unreliability in tests applied to pupils is the major source of regression to the mean as a statistical artifact. Applied to schools, it must have *educational* implications.'

These findings do not suggest that bringing together very bright children under one roof improves the general level of achievement—at least where 'A' level is the criterion. If anything one might draw the opposite conclusions from them—but only to the most tentative degree. What these findings cannot show is the result of distributing these very bright pupils amongst other schools and what, in such case, the optimum 'critical mass' should be. Nor can we know what aspects of the schools have led to these findings. The hypothesis that even amongst highly intelligent pupils academic stratification of a formal or informal kind inhibits the achievements of those lower in the hierarchy, must remain a hypothesis.

Conclusion

Again it must be concluded that research does not provide definitive answers as to how to educate the gifted. In Britain we have had selective schools for children in the top quartile of measured ability and some of these schools have been in a position to be more highly selective than others. We have also had streaming in these selective schools. But we have not otherwise developed special strategies for teaching gifted children (apart from one or two experimental schemes such as those developed by the University of Liverpool and Brentwood College of Education). It has been impossible therefore to evaluate different strategies. And even though a variety of strategies has been attempted in the United States, and although research on gifted children has been most frequently carried out there, it is not possible to

Table 2

The examination achievements of the 5 Arts Sixth forms having the best 'O' level calibre pupils and the 5 Science Sixth forms having the best such pupils compared with the remainder of like sixth forms

Arts

All other Arts Sixths (N=94)			5 Best 'O' level calibre Arts Sixths		
Exam	Number of Results	Proportion	Cut-off Mark	Number of Results	Proportion
'O' level	11,318	Top 25%	62·89	980	56·35**
'A' level	4,434	Top 25%	4·42	570	44·79
'O' level	11,318	Bottom 25%	43·52	980	8·52*
'A' level	4,434	Bottom 25%	1·43	570	12·11

Science

All other Science Sixths (N=94)			5 Best 'O' level calibre Science Sixths		
'O' level	15,577	Top 25%	65·47	1,099	49·34**
'A' level	6,273	Top 25%	4·66	561	42·12
'O' level	15,577	Bottom 25%	45·29	1,099	9·47*
'A' level	6,273	Bottom 25%	1·57	561	13·13

** Indicates that the difference between proportions is significant p=<·001

* p=<·01

Table 3

The achievements of direct grant elite schools compared with the achievements of other direct grant grammar schools and maintained grammar schools

Arts

Other schools (N=94)			Elite direct grant schools (N=5)		
Exam	Number of results	Proportion	Cut-off mark	Number of results	Proportion
'O' level	11,355	Top 25%	63·12	943	51·27**
'A' level	4,518	Top 25%	4·47	489	42·44
'O' level	11,355	Bottom 25%	43·55	943	8·70*
'A' level	4,518	Bottom 25%	1·45	489	13·41

Science

'O' level	15,471	Top 25%	65·46	1,207	47·66
'A' level	6,222	Top 25%	4·63	612	45·51
'O' level	15,471	Bottom 25%	45·27	1,207	10·34
'A' level	6,222	Bottom 25%	1·56	612	11·82

** Indicates that the difference between proportions is significant p=<·001

* p=<·01

Table 4

The achievements of direct grant elite schools compared with the achievements of all other schools, where the standards employed are those of elite schools

Elite (N=5)			All other schools (N=94)		
Exam	Number of results	Proportion	Cut-off mark	Number of results	Proportion
		Arts			
'O' level	943	Top 25%	72·82	11,355	7·49**
'A' level	489	Top 25%	5·40	4,518	11·34
'O' level	943	Bottom 25%	53·17	11,355	49·10**
'A' level	489	Bottom 25%	2·16	4,518	40·88
		Science			
'O' level	1,207	Top 25%	73·32	15,471	9·65
'A' level	612	Top 25%	5·59	6,222	9·50
'O' level	1,207	Bottom 25%	54·58	15,471	47·07**
'A' level	612	Bottom 25%	2·36	6,222	42·30

** Indicates that the difference between proportions is significant $p = < \cdot 001$

generalise about the best available strategies. Nor is informed opinion unanimous. Burt (e.g. 1967) has been an advocate of special schools for the gifted, especially the mathematically gifted. Terman and Oden (in Witty, 1951) favoured enrichment, acceleration, and special classes. Parkyn (1948) gave qualified approval to acceleration if the needs of the individual child were considered, and strongly supported enrichment. Wall (1960) holds that some segregation of the gifted is probably necessary at the secondary stage but believes that in Britain we have paid too little attention to the problem of the identification of unusual talent. A consideration of the education of the gifted involves a set of issues far wider than the question of separate schooling. The relative significance of I.Q., aptitude, personality and interests have to be considered as well as curriculum content, teaching techniques and methods of organising special programmes for the gifted of one or several schools. Although the data of Christie and Griffin were not collected to test specifically hypotheses relating to the grouping of able children, they do throw at least a scintilla of doubt upon the practice of grouping together very large numbers of able children.

THE SIXTH FORM

As a considerable degree of importance is attached to the sixth form of the grammar school as providing a special environment in which academic excellence might be fostered, and similarly as there has been expressed some concern about the quality of the provision for the 16+ group in any alternative institution, the Commission was particularly interested in this problem. Both theoretical and operational forms of provision for this group (e.g. sixth form college, junior college, mushroom schools) were considered, but few comparative data are available. The ongoing Sixth Form Project and the Inner London Education Authority study of sixth form opportunities are currently the major sources of data.

Direct grant and maintained schools compared

For data on the sixth forms of direct grant and maintained schools the Commission drew upon the Sixth Form Survey. The following points are summarised from papers prepared by Mr. T. Christie, University of Manchester, Department of Education:

(a) Direct grant schools have a much more heterogeneous catchment area than maintained schools, but it is strongly biased towards suburban and commuter areas. Some 10 per cent of direct grant schools (excluding Roman Catholic schools) account for twice that percentage of school provision in suburban areas and residential towns, and three times their expected provision in commuter areas.

(b) There was little difference between types of school in the number of 'O' levels required for entry to the sixth form, but boys' direct grant schools were more specific than boys' schools of other types, and much more specific than girls' schools of all types, in the particular combinations of subjects for entry to the sixth form or to different courses within the sixth.

(c) In this study 'leavers' are defined as those pupils who left school after taking 'O' levels who were judged by heads as being unlikely to attain two 'A' level passes, and 'wastage' as the loss of those pupils after the fifth year who were judged capable of obtaining 2 'A' level passes. Tables 5 and 6 compare different types of school. It can be seen from these tables that the direct grant schools had considerably fewer 'leavers' and a much lower rate of 'wastage' than other schools. It is not possible to determine the causes of this difference, but Christie suggests that one reason amongst others might be attributed to variations in the provision for science teaching. There was a relationship between pupils leaving through dissatisfaction with school and the number of arts subjects provided ($r=0.287$, $p=<.05$), and a relationship between 'wastage' and the proportion of sixth form science teachers without an honours degree ($r=-0.241$, $p=<.05$). It has been the direct grant school which has had the advantage of superior science provision.

(d) It can be seen from Table 7 that the proportion of pupils who entered the sixth form after only 4 years in the lower school was greater in boys' schools than girls' schools, and amongst the boys' schools it was greatest in direct grant schools. But the practice of 'expressing' does not appear to have any relationship with school achievement as assessed by 'O' and 'A' level results. However, schools which had a policy of 'expressing' a large proportion of pupils but not all of them had a higher proportion of pupils entering employment after the sixth form and a lower proportion entering universities. A tentative explanation of this finding might be that the policy of 'expressing' a proportion of pupils leads to a system of differential treatment of expressed and non-expressed pupils in the sixth form. One might regard this as a form of streaming which serves to inhibit the lower stream pupils from developing an image of themselves as 'university material'.

The following findings are based upon a comparison between 73 boys' maintained grammar schools and 18 boys' direct grant grammar schools none of them Roman Catholic. All these schools take the examinations of the same examining board, but three of the direct grant schools do so only in part. Occasionally, therefore, the sample of direct grant schools is reduced to 15.

(e) An examination of the number of subjects offered in the first two years of the sixth form reveals little difference between the two types of school. Maintained schools offered an average of 15.11 courses (s.d. 2.57) and direct grant schools 15.06 courses (s.d. 1.75). However, the *range* of courses offered by the 2 types of school did vary as Table 8 shows.

It should be remembered that the average size of the sixth form in a direct grant school is higher than in a maintained school and hence a greater number of staff are available. It would thus seem that the direct grant schools do not use the extra teachers to offer additional courses, but tend to concentrate upon a more limited range and one which is fairly homogeneous amongst these schools. The direct grant schools concentrate on those subjects with a high academic content whereas the maintained grammar schools offer more practical courses. It would also appear from the data that the maintained grammar

Table 5

Fifth form 'leavers' as a percentage of the fifth form

No. of schools

'Leavers' % of 'O' level form	Maintained grammar		Direct grant		Roman Catholic direct grant	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
80–89	—	—	—	—	—	—
70–79	3	2	—	—	—	5
60–69	4	11	—	8	—	—
50–59	26	20	11	—	9	16
40–49	29	23	17	—	27	32
30–39	25	23	17	—	36	21
20–29	5	14	22	15	27	16
10–19	1	5	6	31	—	5
0– 9	7	1	28	46	—	5
Mean	41·44	41·05	26·19	16·10	32·25	38·61
s.d.	15·00	15·84	17·85	16·11	8·64	15·14
N	73	94	18	13	11	19

Table 6

Fifth form 'leavers' and fifth form 'wastage'

School type	Number of schools	Number of pupils in 'O' level form	Number of 'leavers'	Number of pupils classed as 'wastage'	'Wastage' as % of 'O' level form	'Wastage' as % of potential 'A' level candidates
Maintained grammar						
Boys	73	9,071	3,759	586	6·46	11·03
Girls	94	10,251	4,208	815	7·95	13·48
Direct grant						
Boys	18	2,172	569	51	2·34	3·18
Girls	13	1,016	163	42	4·10	4·92
Roman Catholic direct grant						
Boys	11	1,278	463	106	8·30	13·00
Girls	19	1,755	678	199	11·39	18·56

Table 7

The number of schools admitting various percentages of pupils into the sixth form after four years in the lower school

Percentage of pupils	Number of schools					
	Maintained grammar		Direct grant		Roman Catholic direct grant	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
0	23	10	3	10	2	12
1–20	13	7	2	—	2	6
21–40	21	5	3	3	2	1
41–60	15	—	8	—	4	—
61–80	—	—	—	—	—	—
81–100	1	—	2	—	1	—
Mean percentage of pupils expressed	21·47	1·68	38·31	6·12	32·09	4·28
s.d.	20·69	5·77	25·50	11·32	28·50	7·83

Table 8

Percentage of boys' direct grant and boys' maintained schools offering each 'A' level subject

Arts subject	School type Maint.	School type D.G.
English	100	100
History	100	100
Geography	100	100
Economics	49	39
Scripture Knowledge	33	22
Art	93	72
Music	53	33
Latin*	84	100
French	100	100
German	79	78
Spanish	21	28
Russian	7	11
Italian	4	6
Greek*	22	61
Ancient History*	15	50
British Government	10	11
Woodwork*	30	6
Metalwork*	15	0

Science subject	School type Maint.	School type D.G.
Mathematics	100	100
Further Mathematics*	90	100
Pure Maths with Statistics	6	6
Physics	100	100
Chemistry	100	100
Botany	16	28
Zoology	22	28
Biology*	84	100
Geology	27	17
Geometrical and Engineering Drawing*	41	6

* = Significant at the ·01 level

schools are more likely to permit a mixture of arts and science subjects at 'A' level. Of the four direct grant schools with sixth forms of over 250 pupils, 3 have no pupils at all following a mixed course. It is unlikely that this is due to staffing difficulties in schools with this size of sixth form.

(f) Direct grant schools provide less minority time than do the maintained schools, but there is little difference in modes of utilising this time in the two types of school. Of the two main functions of minority time, broadening the curriculum and improving specifically academic competences and hence university eligibility, the latter appears to account for the main use of this time in both types of school.

(g) The direct grant schools have a shorter school year than the maintained schools. This reduction in teaching time is generally achieved at the expense of minority time rather than of the time allocated to 'A' level teaching. An exception occurs in the case of the science subjects ($t=3.46$, $p=<.01$), but it is likely that time could be saved here without any deterioration in 'A' level performance. Christie and Oliver (1969) have demonstrated that in boys' maintained grammar schools the only subject in which 'A' level performance was improved (holding 'O' level achievement constant) from having 400 as against 280 hours of instruction time was Chemistry.

Sixth form size

The Commission was also concerned with the question of the viable size of the sixth form in a comprehensive school. On this question, opinion is more freely available than useful data. Perhaps the most useful body of evidence is contained in the I.L.E.A.'s report on sixth form opportunities in Inner London (I.L.E.A., 1968). This study showed that 58 per cent of I.L.E.A. schools had fewer than 40 'A' level candidates in the first year sixth and 77 per cent fewer than 40 in the second year sixth. On the assumption made by the Working Party that at least 10–12 subjects should be offered to 'A' level students, and that teaching groups should be no smaller than 5 and no larger than 15, then the 'A' level year group would need to number 40–45. There was considerable variation in the proportions of 'A' level pupils between the different divisions of the I.L.E.A. and between different schools, and the Working Party drew attention to the disadvantages of a number of schools each providing for very small numbers of 'A' level students. On its projections for staying-on figures in 1975 by division—which the Report emphasises must be treated most tentatively—it can be seen that small sixth forms may persist to that date in 5 or 6 form entry non-selective schools in some divisions, although in other divisions some schools can expect to increase considerably their sixth forms by 1975. The Report also shows that many students aged 16–18 are taking 'A' level courses in colleges of further and higher education.

The Working Party suggests the following ways of ameliorating the temporarily unsatisfactory situation as far as 'A' level is concerned:

(i) Co-ordinated provision may be made between certain schools and a further/higher education college.

(ii) A grammar school and another secondary school intended in the Authority's plan to work in close association, should have common provision for 'A' level subjects.

(iii) Two or three schools may form a consortium for the provision of sixth form courses, with a director of sixth form studies responsible for planning and co-ordination.

(iv) In a few cases, and for a period up to 1975, it may be necessary for 'A' level studies to be concentrated in certain comprehensive schools in an area and for 'A' level pupils (but not other sixth formers) to transfer at 16+ to such schools.

The Commission also considered the possibility of so re-structuring schools as to make sixth forms viable even in small comprehensive schools. In particular two papers by Dr. Elizabeth Halsall (Halsall n.d.) were considered. These papers offer a model of a small comprehensive school with a viable sixth form based upon certain assumptions regarding mixed-ability grouping, the availability of new media of instruction and such devices as correspondence courses which facilitate self-instruction, the restriction of options below the level of the sixth form to a common core curriculum, and the upgrading of the qualifications of teachers.

Conclusion

It would appear from the limited data that are available that there are some differences between direct grant and maintained grammar school sixth forms, but that these are not great. It would also seem, at least from the I.L.E.A. data, that reorganisation along comprehensive lines might create problems of sixth form viability in some areas. One cannot tell to what extent new forms of organisation could help to offset effectively the problems of schools with a low total or proportionate intake of able children.

THE STAFFING OF SCHOOLS

Two aspects of the staffing of schools which were of practical interest to the Commission were the present staffing position in different types of school and the possible effect of secondary reorganisation on recruitment.

Teachers in different types of school

The two major sources of data are Graham Kalton (1966), which allows comparisons to be made between independent, and direct grant schools whose heads belong to the Headmasters' Conference and maintained grammar schools; and *Statistics of Education Volume 4* published in April, 1969 which gives data on staffing up to 1967.

The following are the main points arising from Kalton's survey. (The terms independent schools and direct grant schools refer only to those schools whose heads belong to the Headmasters' Conference.)

(a) Independent schoolmasters are more likely to have a degree, and for this degree to be of a higher class than masters in direct grant schools who, in turn, are more likely to have better degrees if they teach in a day school (but not in a mixed day/'boarding' school) than teachers in maintained grammar schools.

(b) A high proportion (71 per cent) of masters in Headmasters' Conference schools took their degrees at either Oxford or Cambridge. Whereas 82 per cent of graduate masters in independent boarding and mixed day/

boarding schools had Oxbridge degrees, the figure is 56 per cent for direct grant schools who consequently have a higher proportion of graduates from London and other English universities. The independent day schools are in an intermediate position.

(c) The independent schools and the direct grant schools which are mixed day/boarding have a lower proportion of science graduates than direct grant day schools and maintained grammar schools (which have about the same proportion). The independent day schools are well ahead of the others in the proportion of science graduates having first class honours degrees. The other schools are ranked as follows on this: H.M.C. direct grant day; H.M.C. independent boarding and mixed; H.M.C. direct grant mixed day/boarding.

(d) The percentages of teachers in the different types of H.M.C. school who have had no training for teaching are as follows:

	%
Independent day	44
Independent mainly day	53
Independent mainly boarding	64
Independent boarding	68
Direct grant day	37
Direct grant mainly day	35
Direct grant mainly boarding	40

A greater proportion of masters aged under 30 in all types of school have had teacher training compared with masters aged over 30. The one exception is the H.M.C. direct grant day school where 54 per cent of masters over 30 and 61 per cent of masters under 30 have had teacher training.

Statistics of Education Volume 4 presents data which are really too general for any inferences to be drawn about the quality of staffing in different types of school. However, the following facts have been selected as having some general relevance.

(a) Percentages of teachers in different types of school who are graduates (at 31 March 1967):

	Men	Women
Secondary modern	17.8	12.7
Secondary grammar	77.2	68.7
Comprehensive	43.9	32.6
Direct grant grammar	72.2	49.7

There are many regional variations but few generalisations can be drawn. East Anglia has the lowest proportion of graduates in direct grant schools with the North West the next lowest and Greater London the highest. Wales has a clear lead in the proportion of graduates in maintained grammar and comprehensive schools, but is only slightly above average for graduates in direct grant schools.

(b) Figures are given for the class of degrees in different subjects by school and sex. The following summarises the more relevant data:

Men

	Maths	Physics	Biology	Modern Languages	History
Secondary grammar					
1st class hons.	264	103	42	267	109
2nd class hons.	844	609	421	1,983	1,561
Other degrees	1,132	767	357	645	360
Total	2,240	1,479	820	2,895	2,030
Comprehensive					
1st class hons.	37	24	6	61	30
2nd class hons.	147	124	97	534	532
Other degrees	392	186	123	244	182
Total	567	334	226	839	744
D.G. grammar					
1st class hons.	42	14	2	27	16
2nd class hons.	103	91	41	261	195
Other degrees	140	84	34	101	85
Total	285	189	77	389	296

Women

	Maths	Physics	Biology	Modern Languages	History
Secondary grammar					
1st class hons.	137	17	63	187	48
2nd class hons.	446	112	681	1,605	825
Other degrees	627	190	337	468	220
Total	1,210	319	881	2,260	1,093
Comprehensive					
1st class hons.	7	2	10	39	4
2nd class hons.	55	20	95	350	218
Other degrees	106	30	83	178	88
Total	168	52	188	567	310
D.G. grammar					
1st class hons.	23	3	5	30	8
2nd class hons.	78	21	54	199	127
Other degrees	77	21	51	67	50
Total	178	45	110	296	185

Total numbers of teachers in different types of school are:

	Men		Women	
	Graduates	Non-graduates	Graduates	Non-graduates
Secondary grammar	18,110	5,332	10,413	4,738
Comprehensive	5,557	7,099	2,446	5,047
D.G. grammar	2,435	939	1,570	1,586

The Dainton Report (1967) gives the following percentages of graduates by school and age as at November 1965:

	Maintained grammar	Maintained other than grammar	Direct grant grammar	Independent recognised	All secondary schools
	%	%	%	%	%
Graduates*					
Under 30 years	35	33	39	26	33
30 but under 40 years	25	25	20	29	25
40 but under 50 years	16	18	17	20	17
50 but under 60 years	20	20	20	19	20
60 years and over	5	4	3	7	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Non-graduates					
Under 30 years	35	34	25	31	34
30 but under 40 years	26	24	34	22	24
40 but under 50 years	21	21	18	18	21
50 but under 60 years	14	18	16	23	18
60 years and over	4	3	7	7	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100

* Including graduate equivalents

(c) The following data has been extracted from *Statistics* to indicate changes in the proportion of staff who are graduates in maintained and direct grant schools:

	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
Men											
Maintained primary and secondary schools	27·7	28·5	29·3	30·0	30·4	30·5	31·3	31·1	30·8	30·4	29·9
D.G. schools	82·5	82·4	82·4	82·4	82·7	81·7	80·2	79·4	79·1	75·7	72·2
Women											
Maintained primary and secondary schools	11·6	11·8	12·1	12·4	12·6	12·7	13·1	13·2	13·2	13·0	13·1
D.G. schools	56·9	56·9	51·1	57·5	58·2	58·5	56·1	55·7	55·2	51·6	49·7

It would appear that the proportion of male graduates in all types of school increased until the early 1960s and then began a decline which appears to have affected the direct grant schools more significantly. The same trend is seen amongst women in direct grant schools, but the proportion of women teachers who are graduates has remained substantially the same in the maintained sector. (It should be noted that changes in data processing after 1962 might have affected the figures in general, but presumably it would have affected data from all types of school equally.)

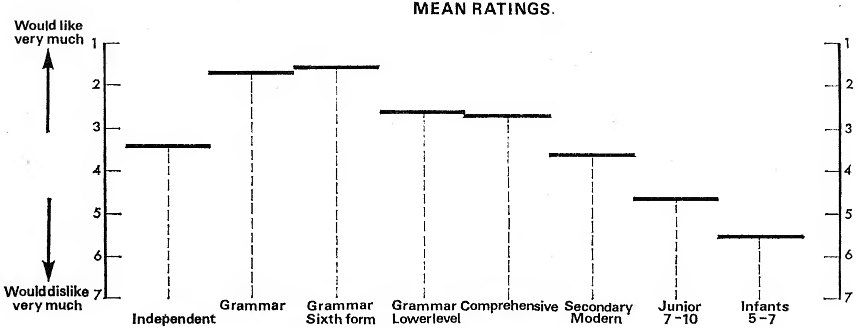
It is difficult to assess whether the decline in the proportion of graduates in direct grant schools is a function of a difficulty in recruiting graduates, or a changed policy towards the employment of non-graduates in academic subjects, or the extension of the teaching of non-academic subjects resulting in a shift in the proportion of graduates, or the supply of graduates failing to keep pace with the increased demand for teachers.

Attitudes towards teaching in different types of school

An investigation into attitudes towards teaching was carried out by the Social Survey (Morton–Williams et al, 1966). This survey was based upon a sample of 3,350 undergraduates drawn from all universities in England and Wales and it considered inter alia the attitude of undergraduates towards teaching in different types of school. The basic information is given in Figure 1. When attitudes towards different types of teaching were analysed by type of school last attended by the respondents, it was found that whatever the type of school the student had attended the grammar school was the most popular in which to teach. The idea of teaching in an independent school was most attractive to those who had themselves been to an independent school. Students who had themselves attended direct grant schools preferred grammar school teaching (no distinction is made between direct grant and maintained) and favoured about equally independent and comprehensive schools. When reasons for liking or disliking various types of school were analysed the results were very much as one would expect. Grammar schools were preferred for reasons centering on the standard of work carried out, the intelligence of the pupils and the possibilities of specialisation. About half the undergraduates were unable to name anything specifically which attracted them to independent schools, but the two most frequently mentioned points were the standard of work and the possibility of earning more than in a State school. Other factors mentioned by a very small percentage of respondents were: freedom, small class size, possibilities of individual attention, and fewer disciplinary problems. By far the largest number of comments made against teaching in independent schools centred upon an opposition in principle to this kind of education. Secondary modern teaching was most favoured as a challenge and least favoured because of the limited academic return of work involved—men scientists were particularly concerned at this. The other main negative reactions concerned the apathy of pupils. No attractions or deterrents are reported for the comprehensive school.

Little further comment is needed on these findings. It perhaps ought to be pointed out that when the investigation was carried out, there were far fewer comprehensive schools than at the present time. Furthermore, the possibility of sixth form work was presented for the grammar school only; one would clearly now wish to know the pulling power of opportunities for sixth form teaching in comprehensive schools.

Figure 1 ATTITUDES TOWARDS TEACHING IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOL
Sample of undergraduates in England and Wales, 1963



A recent paper by Whiteside, Bernbaum and Noble (1969) contains more recent data based upon a survey carried out amongst postgraduate certificate students in the Department of Education at Leicester University. In a lengthy questionnaire the following three questions were asked:

> "What type of school would you *most* like to begin your teaching career in?"
>
> "Indicate which type of school you would *least* like to begin your teaching career in."
>
> "Regardless of your preference, which type of school do you think it *most* likely you will begin your teaching career in?"

On each occasion the students were offered the selection—

> Secondary modern grammar, college of further education, independent, direct grant, comprehensive, primary.

The basic findings are summarised in Table 9. The most significant finding is the high preference given to teaching in comprehensive schools which is much higher than in the Social Survey report. This might be due to the time lag between the studies during which more comprehensive schools have been established. It could also be argued that the attitudes of Leicester students are atypical either because the School recruits those students who tend to be the most committed to comprehensive schools or because the School succeeds in inculcating these attitudes, or because many of the students had carried out their teaching practice in comprehensive schools. But it should be pointed out that a study of the same School carried out by a visiting American during 1960–61, Robbins (1963), showed that 138 out of 147 students planned or desired to teach in a grammar school during a period in which the 'progressive' character of the School was perhaps even more clearly marked in comparison with other Departments of Education. It will be seen, however, that fewer students actually took posts in comprehensive schools than indicated the desire to do so. This difference could have resulted from the general weakness of pencil-and-paper tests which perhaps tend to induce respondents to give what they considered to be the 'right' answers, or from a market situation in which students are unable to obtain suitable posts in comprehensive schools in the areas in which they wish to teach. (Although this explanation is at odds with the common argument about the shortage of graduates in comprehensive schools.) An analysis of the responses to different items on the questionnaire indicated that those who claimed a preference for comprehensive schools but actually entered grammar schools had more 'traditional' views about teaching than those who actually entered comprehensives.

The authors of the paper point out that in absolute terms comprehensive schools do not provide widespread opportunities for specialised subject teaching at the sixth form level. Furthermore, the N.F.E.R. research indicates that 54.1 per cent of qualified graduates in comprehensive schools taught all ranges of ability whilst only 27.2 per cent concentrated their attentions on pupils with above-average ability.

Analysis of responses showed that those who would most like to teach in comprehensive schools would least like to teach in independent schools whilst those preferring grammar schools least preferred secondary modern

Table 9

Preference for teaching in different types of secondary school amongst students in a University Department of Education and the actual posts which they entered

	Type of school *like* to begin teaching career in	Type of school *thought most likely* to begin teaching career in	First appointment
Comprehensive school	97	64	54
Grammar school	25	53	38
College of further education	19	16	10
Secondary modern school	5	16	11
Direct grant school	4	1	8
Independent school	1	2	—
Primary school	6	5	—
Teaching abroad	—	—	11
Further study (Higher degrees etc.)	—	—	16
Total number of students	157	157	157

Source: Whiteside, Bernbaum and Noble (1969) schools. The negative reasons given were as follows:

Reasons for disliking teaching in independent schools

(i) Against the ideology of Public Schools	53
(ii) Poor academic standards and facilities	1
(iii) Teaching methods too traditional	4
(iv) Other	1
	59

Reasons for disliking teaching in secondary modern schools

(i) Want to teach able and motivated children	13
(ii) Discipline problems	7
(iii) Cannot teach subject speciality	19
(iv) Lack of status for secondary modern	4
	43

This line of investigation was worth extending to other university departments of education even if only on a small scale. A questionnaire on attitudes towards teaching in different types of secondary school was administered to students in the Manchester and Oxford University Departments of Education with the permission of the heads of department: Professor R. A. C. Oliver and Mr. A. D. C. Peterson. All students of the Oxford Department were approached and there was a 69 per cent response rate. All students of the Manchester Department were approached with the exception of three groups who were specifically training for primary teaching and a response rate of 84 per cent was obtained. Students who intended to teach in infant or primary schools, further or higher education establishments, or overseas were excluded from the survey. The exclusion of these and of questionnaires providing incomplete information left 100 responses from the Manchester Department and 150 responses from the Oxford Department. Tables 10 and 11 show the first positive or negative choices for the two departments.

The tables require little explanation or comment. It is clear that the maintained grammar school is the highest preferred first appointment for both Manchester and Oxford students, but the latter indicated a greater preference for teaching in independent schools than the former. There is little difference in their preferences for first appointments in comprehensive and direct grant schools. Amongst both groups of students comprehensive school teaching is the most popular first choice for the major part of a teaching career. One can only speculate on the reasons for this difference from preferred first appointment. One reason might be that students wish to develop their teaching competences in schools which they expect to be more traditional in their organisation and curriculum, and in which disciplinary problems are minimal, and then move to the less familiar comprehensive school when they have developed these competences. Perhaps another reason for this preference is an implicit recognition that in the future comprehensive schools will be predominant and career advancement will often necessitate a move into this type of school.

Table 10

Manchester U.D.E. First positive or negative choices: percentages (n=100)

	Preferred for first appointment	Least preferred for first appointment	Preferred for major part of teaching career	Least preferred for major part of teaching career	Expected* first appointment	Expected* institution for major part of teaching career
Secondary modern or secondary technical	1	27	—	27	11	8
Maintained grammar	48	—	36	—	67	56
Comprehensive	27	2	46	1	53	74
Direct grant grammar	21	6	15	6	22	27
Independent	3	65	3	66	8	4
	100	100	100	100		
Direct grant grammar (non-denominational)	19	—	13	—	14	20
Direct grant grammar (denominational)	2	6	2	6	8	7
Independent day	1	1	3	2	6	2
Independent boarding	2	64	0	64	2	2

* More than one choice supplied

Table 11

Oxford U.D.E. First positive or negative choices: percentages (n=150)

	Preferred for first appointment	Least preferred for first appointment	Preferred for major part of teaching career	Least preferred for major part of teaching career	Expected * first appointment	Expected* institution for major part of teaching career
Secondary modern or secondary technical	2	54·7	2	52	8·7	4·7
Maintained grammar	30	2·7	24·7	2	52	45·3
Comprehensive	26·7	3·3	41·3	3·3	28·7	52
Direct grant grammar	21·4	6·7	18·7	8	28·7	34
Independent	20	32·7	13·3	34·7	33·4	30·7
	100	100	100	100		
Direct grant grammar (non-denominational)	18·7	—	14·7	—	20·7	26·7
Direct grant grammar (denominational)	2·7	6·7	4	8	8·0	7·3
Independent day	8·7	2·7	6	4·7	14·7	12
Independent boarding	11·3	30·0	7·3	30	18·7	18·7

* More than one choice supplied

Multiple choices were allowed for expected first appointment and expected institution for the major part of career. It will be seen that maintained grammar as expected first appointment gives way to the comprehensive school as expected permanent appointment for the Manchester students but remains the same for the Oxford students. The interesting point about these columns is the number of multiple choices given by the students indicating, perhaps, an uncertainty or open-mindedness about career. It might be that factors other than school type—e.g. geographical location, promotion prospects, level of work available—might be more significant.

In general, the findings indicate that sentiment is strongly against the secondary modern school, and against the independent—especially boarding schools—amongst the Manchester students, but otherwise the students appear to be fairly open-minded about the schools in which they wish to teach.

Conclusion

The data presented above do not permit any valid generalisation about the future supply and demand for teachers in relation to reorganisation implied in the Commission's terms of reference. The supply and demand figures are not helpful as they stand. More needs to be known about the distribution and utilisation of teachers with various qualifications, and the Department of Education and Science currently has this in hand. It can be very tentatively inferred from the data on attitudes that in general intending teachers are on the whole open-minded about working in different types of school, but these data tell us nothing about the attitudes of students with different classes of degree.

INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS

Educational developments in other societies were naturally of great interest to the Commission and the most up-to-date information was sought regarding the present stage of educational reforms in Western European, Eastern European, North American and Australasian societies. The difficult nature of comparative studies was always kept in mind. The following is a summary of the points which emerged. It must be remembered, however, that generalisations of this order are extremely hazardous and each of the statements made needs very considerable qualification for each country.

A summary of international comparisons

(a) For the most part North American and Eastern European schools are comprehensive. There is a trend towards comprehensive secondary education in most Western European countries. This has been completed in some countries, particularly in Scandanavia, and is marked by varying rates of progress in other countries.

(b) Pupil differentiation increasingly occurs *within* the secondary school as pupils enter different courses, e.g. academic, technical, commercial. This process occurs at different ages in different countries and varies between twelve and sixteen with a trend towards later differentiation. The degree of pupil choice and the force of the 'guidance' given is difficult to determine from the information available. Academic courses continue to attract the most able pupils but there is also an increasing tendency for able pupils to pursue technical courses.

(c) Vocational education can be conceptualised in a number of ways ranging from specific job training to more general orientations towards particular careers. This makes generalisation difficult. It would appear, however, that in Europe, though not in North America, there is a clear vocational bias in non-academic courses especially in the upper secondary schools.

(d) The concept of higher education varies between countries, but considering all forms of tertiary education it is clear that there has been a considerable expansion in all societies. When considering the traditional European concept of a university, it can be said that in recent years there has been a rapid increase in enrolments, although this expansion results from different policies. Thus Little and Kallen (1968) point out that this expansion can have resulted from the increased proportion of secondary school graduates entering university, the increased proportion of pupils completing secondary education, or the increased proportion of the age group entering those secondary school courses which lead to higher education. The expansion of higher education in Europe appears to have improved the entry chances of working class children but not very dramatically. The chances of working class pupils entering higher education in U.S.A. are much greater, but institutions of higher education tend to be stratified by the social class of entrants.

(e) Examination arrangements are highly varied. In most countries there is usually only one school-leaving examination which takes many forms. In the U.S.A. high school graduation is achieved by means of credits awarded by the school but examinations such as those of the College Entrance Examination Board can be taken by college applicants. In France and Germany secondary school examinations are set internally by the school but are externally moderated and have, in fact, state-wide currency for university entrance. In the Russian system a Certificate of Maturity is awarded to all students who successfully complete the secondary course. This permits recipients to apply for admission to higher education, but is not in itself enough. University faculties conduct their own written and oral tests and competition is fierce. In Scandinavian countries internal examinations, externally moderated, form the basis of admission to higher education.

(f) Teacher/pupil ratios are difficult to determine on the basis of existing statistics. A very crude generalisation would be that class size averages thirty in both primary and secondary schools. The average size of sixth form classes in this country is probably lower than comparable academic classes in other societies.

(g) As a broad generalisation one can say that secondary education in the countries considered is largely co-educational.

(h) All countries would appear to have some 'independent' schools. The U.S.A. has a system of private high schools some of which are run along the lines of the service academies. Russia has a small number of schools which are independent of the State for administrative purposes but are State-financed. There are also State boarding schools in

Russia but these are in no sense elite schools and frequently admit disadvantaged children. In a number of Western European countries there are denominational schools which perhaps approximate to our 'aided' schools in administrative status. In Norway there are a few cathedral schools, and in Sweden there are 25 private schools which appear to have no social or educational pre-eminence. Only in Australasia does one find independent schools which are close parallels to the British model. In New Zealand, for example, there are over 100 independent secondary schools almost all connected with churches.

(i) Although comparisons of such vague concepts as autonomy are full of danger, the generalisation that the headteacher in the British system —both State and independent—has greater authority than his counterpart in either highly centralised systems or local systems seems to be widely accepted. H. C. Dent remarks that the English headteacher '. . . is accorded more power and more freedom in the use of it than heads of schools in any other country. 'In France appointments to headships are made by the Ministry and conform to certain criteria regarding qualifications and experience. The French headmaster is largely an administrator. He allocates duties to his staff after discussions with them and is responsible for writing an annual report on each member, but by and large he is rather remote from his staff. The staff committee elects representatives to present their opinions to the head. His power is limited by the requirements of the State which lays down the main lines of curriculum and modes of operation.

In America the school boards of each State prescribe minimum standards in buildings, curricula, qualifications and textbooks, and the ad hoc local school boards have considerable influence on the schools. The school principal is far less significant than the school superintendent who is the executive of the school board. It is the superintendent who makes policy decisions over courses and curricula under the surveillance of the school board and in consultation with principals and teachers. The school principal is concerned with the administration of the school including the welfare of teachers and pupils.

The Russian school director is in no position to play the autocrat. The accent is on democratic organisation and his activities are limited on the one side by the centralised control of the system and on the other by the various committees of teachers. In some areas directors are elected. The prospective director must fulfil certain criteria for promotion and can be nominated by party, trade union, teachers' organisations or local education departments. A candidate must receive at least three-quarters of the teachers' votes and is elected for three years at the end of which he must make a report and seek re-election. Nigel Grant (1968) writes: 'A director's powers are in some respects less extensive than those of the headmaster of the British school.' He is entitled to see that teachers fulfil their commitments and comply with regulation schemes of work and teaching methods, but any intervention he makes in a class-teacher's work can be the subject of an appeal to the Teachers' Soviet.

Even in the Australian system, which resembles the British system in so many ways, the headteacher would appear to have less control over the internal activities of his school than his British counterpart. In all, it would appear that within the British educational system, the headteacher—whether of an independent or State school—has an unusual degree of autonomy. In each of the systems considered, agencies outside the school retained considerable influence over the curriculum.

In conclusion one can say that in spite of the great differences existing between the educational systems considered, one can detect a number of overall trends. These include:

1. A growing degree of comprehensivisation, especially in the early years of secondary education.
2. An attempt to maintain flexibility and allow for changes of course as far up the secondary school as is compatible with the needs of the more academically able children.
3. An attempt to maintain a general curriculum in the early years of secondary education.
4. A growing emphasis on vocational education in the later stages of secondary education.
5. A growing awareness of the need to offset environmental disadvantages from the pre-school years up through the primary and secondary schools.
6. A growth of interest, often supported by research, into curriculum and teaching methods which might enhance the success of organisational changes.

Some of the more basic references relating to international comparisons are as follows: Baron (1966); Bowles (1963); Cramer and Browne (1965); Dixon (1965); Grant (1968); Halls (1965); Hans (1963); Holmes (1965); Kazamias and Massialas (1965); King (1963, 1965a, 1965b, 1966, 1967); Knoll (1967); U.N.E.S.C.O. (1955–1966).

International comparisons of achievement

The most exhaustive cross-national study is the study of achievement in mathematics by the International Project for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (Husén, 1967; Postlethwaite, 1967). The twelve countries participating in the study were: Australia, Belgium, England, Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, Israel, Japan, Netherlands, Scotland, Sweden, U.S.A. Four populations were chosen for sampling and investigation. These were (1a) all 13 year-olds, (1b) all students in the grade where most 13 year-olds were to be found within three months of the end of the school year, (3a) pre-university students studying mathematics as a major subject, and (3b) pre-university students *not* studying mathematics as a major subject. From this complex and wide-ranging study certain findings can be abstracted as being of interest to the Commission. These are the conclusions which Postlethwaite draws from the analysis relating to differentiation, retentivity and specialisation.

(a) Differentiation of Population (1b) pupils into homogeneous groups either through a system of separate schools or a system of streaming within schools was found to be associated with large standard deviations, that is it appeared to lead to a wider range of mathematical achievement. This was also found with the Japanese data, and it is argued that the reason for this is that within the junior high school and senior high school structures there is a hierarchy of schools with severe competition amongst students to enter the best school. Discussing the evidence relating to the effects of differentiation Postlethwaite writes:

> 'Educational policy makers should be aware of the relationship between these educational practices and the spread of scores on achievement tests in mathematics. This is of particular importance in the debate concerning selective versus comprehensive systems of education. Ability grouping within schools is associated with large standard deviations in a school system, even though that school system may have no inter-school differentiation. Furthermore, it is not enough to take an administrative decision concerning differentiation without, at the same time, changing teachers' attitudes about differentiation. These findings are also of interest to those concerned with the 'culturally-disadvantaged' child, since certain differentiation practices can exacerbate his plight, whereas it would appear that non-differentiation might improve it.'

(b) 'Retentivity' refers to the proportion of an age group being retained in full-time schooling in a system to the end of secondary schooling. An examination of the achievements of the pre-university populations revealed that although the *average* score drops when a higher proportion of the age group goes through to the pre-university year (as in the U.S.A.) the performance of the *best* students does not deteriorate. But average scores can be misleading when one considers that in England 5 per cent of the age group is studying mathematics in the pre-university years whereas the comparative figure for the U.S.A. is 18 per cent. Therefore attempts were made to compare the *yield* (i.e. 'how many students are brought how far'). On this criterion, which Postlethwaite concedes is crude, it would seem that the systems with higher retentivity have greater yields, but it is also noted that yield is to a certain extent a function of retentivity. Postlethwaite writes:

> 'The data obtained in this study reveal clearly the possibility of having both a high overall yield and an undiminished elite yield.'

(c) The number of subjects studied by pre-university students studying mathematics ranged from an average of three in England to an average of nine for all the European countries. But a comparison of average mathematical scores between systems with 8 or more and 4 or fewer was made and there was no significant difference in these scores.

A recent re-analysis of the I.E.A. data (Harrison, 1969) derived measures of pupils' opportunity to learn particular mathematical topics, their social class background and their school performance. Samples selected for the study were 13 year-old students in six countries: the United States, England, France, Japan, Scotland and Sweden. The samples were drawn to yield four groups: advantaged-successful, advantaged-non-successful, disadvantaged-successful, disadvantaged-non-successful. The central question of the study was: to what extent does the opportunity to learn afforded the successful students differ from that afforded the non-successful students?

The findings revealed that in five out of six countries (the United States, England, France, Scotland and Sweden) most non-successful students are not given the opportunities to learn mathematics that are afforded to the successful students. And in four out of six countries (the United States, England, France and Scotland) disadvantaged students are not given the same opportunities as advantaged students.

The lack of relationship between home background and opportunity in Sweden and Japan is held to be explicable by the centralised core curriculum which is offered to all students until at least the age of thirteen, and this homogeneous educational programme is held to explain the absence of a relationship between success in school and opportunity in Japan where lack of success must be attributed to other factors than lack of opportunity.

Harrison concludes: 'While the possibility remains that all students will not be able to benefit from such opportunities, the opportunities offered advantaged-successful students should be offered to all students if success for most is valued.'

Education in Sweden

The Commission paid special attention to the educational system of Sweden, including a visit by several members. The structure of the Swedish system and the history of recent changes was considered (Marklund and Soderberg, 1967; Orring, 1962; Dahllof et al, 1965). Attention was also paid to recent educational research in Sweden and particularly to the relationship between research and policy.

Educational research in Sweden

Research has become an institutionalised part of educational change in Sweden. Each of the official investigations which preceded each change either commissioned research directly or drew upon existing research findings, and it would appear that these had considerable influence upon the final decisions. There are a number of brief summaries of these researches (e.g. Harnqvist, 1961; Marklund, 1966). The following are summaries of the more important and interesting investigations:

(a) Elmgren (1952) investigated the relationship between 'theoretical' and 'practical' abilities. The former were assessed by two verbal and one non-verbal group intelligence tests and the latter by a modification of the Minnesota Assembly Test. The Tests were given to 4,151 boys and 5,154 girls between the ages of 10 and 15. He found evidence of a correlation between the measures of the two abilities, those who did well on the theoretical test tended to do well on the practical test and vice versa. But the correlations were not high and Elmgren himself pointed out the dangers of correlating intelligence scores and the single test of practical aptitude. He writes: 'Any comparison between the level of this homogeneous general intelligence and the corresponding levels of a single variant of practical aptitude, which is considerably more complex and at the same time more loosely integrated, must consequently be undertaken with a strong insistence on relativity of the results thus obtained.' Nevertheless the Swedish School Commission interpreted Elmgren's findings as supporting later differentiation on the grounds that one could not adequately distinguish between the two types of ability until a later stage. (Elmgren was ambivalent about this interpretation of his work, and it was also criticised by a number of other educationists—a point referred to below.)

(b) Orring (1959) conducted an investigation of pupils' progress through the academic school using a 20 per cent sample. He found that in spite of the fact that there was rigorous selection only about half of the entering students reached graduation in the allotted time. There was a considerable percentage of pupils (varying between one-fifth and one-third) who left school without taking an examination or continuing with their studies in pre-university classes. There was also a considerable amount of grade repeating. Drop-outs and non-promotion were correlated with entrance marks but the correlations were not high. First year marks did not have a high predictive value. In a special analysis of the drop-outs and non-promotions carried out by Husén, it was found that when entrance qualifications were controlled pupils from working class backgrounds failed more often than others.

(c) Harnqvist (1960) carried out research into the psychological basis for differentiation in terms of individual differences. Comparable samples of 500 children were drawn from each of Grades 4 to 9 in comprehensive schools. Each pupil took a series of tests for different ability factors and also completed an interest inventory. The scores were used to construct developmental curves for the average performance of pupils in different grades. Intercorrelations between the scores reflect the size of the differences between various factors within the individual. It is assumed that this intra individual variation increases with age so that it becomes increasingly easier to distinguish the particular traits of a given individual. The study confirms the hypothesis for *interests* but does not show a clear upward or downward trend for ability factors, i.e. it is no easier in the higher than the lower grades to determine what an individual's particular abilities are. Harnqvist draws the following implications for practice:

> 'As to the organisation of differentiation, the author draws the conclusion that, when alternative courses of study are offered, the pupils should be free to choose more difficult courses in some subjects and easier courses in others, and not be forced to choose the same level of difficulty throughout, since differences within the individual are often so great that such flexibility is needed. Furthermore, transfer between different courses should be made easy for this by no means few pupils who develop irregularly during the age period concerned.'

(d) Johannisson and Magnusson (1960) studied children in a hundred classes at the seventh grade level representing academic, comprehensive and elementary schools. The variables which they investigated were sociometric choices and attitudes to class-mates, teachers and the school situation in general. They also studied parents' attitudes towards education, and the teachers' views on teaching methods and educational philosophy. Harnqvist (1961) summarises the findings as follows:

> 'The study is full of interesting results, but does not reveal any general superiority of any one of the school systems compared where social development is concerned. The number of years the

class-mates have been together influences the sociometric structure of the classes. Elementary school pupils with one class teacher for the majority of subjects gave a more positive attitude towards the teacher than pupils with different subject matter teachers. Such findings are to some extent reflected in differences between the school systems.

Among the most interesting results of Johannisson's study is the interaction shown between the parents' attitudes towards education and the pupils' attitudes towards school, teachers, and class-mates. When parents have high ambitions for their child's education and take an active interest in its school work, the child tends to be interested and ambitious too. This is especially the case in the comprehensive schools where the variations between parents' attitudes are greater than in the positively or negatively homogeneous school systems.

Magnusson has studied the level of self-appraisal among pupils of the different school systems. He finds a general tendency for the pupils to rate themselves somewhat below an average rating made by their class-mates. This tendency of underestimation is more marked in the schools where a selection procedure has taken place between the sixth and seventh Grade than in the comprehensive schools. He concludes that a selection procedure is likely to influence self-appraisal in a negative direction.'

(e) Svensson (1962) carried out an investigation into the effects of different forms of school organisation on achievement. The study was carried out in Stockholm between 1955 and 1960 when three forms of secondary organisation were running concurrently. Pupils who went to schools on the South side were differentiated by ability after 6 years (i.e. at 13+) in both the *realskola* and the comprehensive school, the difference between them being that the comprehensive school provided for a gradual transition to academic courses in Grades 7 and 8. Pupils who went to school on the North side were differentiated into select-plus and select-minus after Grade 4 (i.e. 11+). Academic classes were taught by subject teachers and non-academic and undifferentiated classes by class teachers. Standardised objective tests were used to determine levels of intelligence, reading, mathematics and incorporating, as the pupils went up the school, tests in English, German, history, chemistry, etc. These attainments were measured on several occasions as the pupils progressed from the sixth through the ninth Grade. Comparisons were made, where appropriate, between the achievements of the different groups on the *realskola* final exams. In a pre-test at Grade 4 level each pupil's intelligence and achievement levels and the socio-economic status of his parents were determined. These two variables of qualifications and social class were held constant throughout the investigation. The investigation involved a complete age group of 11,000 pupils from 84 classes (20 plus select, 24 minus select, 40 undifferentiated).

Svensson naturally presents his findings in some detail, and from these he is able to derive support both for early differentiation (especially in the short run) and also for later differentiation. The picture is different according to such factors as age, initial levels of ability, socio-economic background and on the different attainment tests. His own brief summary of the findings is as follows:

> 'A recurring argument is that early transfer of talented pupils to separate classes or schools is essential if they are to make optimum educational progress. On this point we think the present study has some clear-cut answers to give:
>
> (1) It made no difference in the long run to the achievements of plus-select pupils whether they received their prior instruction in one or the other class-type. Whatever superiority early-differentiated pupils may have enjoyed in their previous schooling had been reduced to practical nullity by the time all pupils reached Grades 8 and 9.
>
> (2) Over the long run, the placement of plus-select classes in State secondary schools, or of both plus-selects and minus-selects in elementary and comprehensive schools, had no bearing on the achievements of pupils of comparable initial scholastic aptitude and home background.
>
> (3) To minus-select pupils it was ultimately immaterial whether they were assigned to their respective classes early or late.
>
> It should once again be emphasised that our inquiries were confined to the scholastic attainments of pupils, which admittedly is a limited sector of the school's activities. The findings are therefore unable to sustain generalisations of broader scope. On the other hand, it must be said that the sector we have covered is a great one, embracing as it does not only an assessment of general ability but also those subject matter areas which enjoy high prestige value and are considered essential both in the school and the larger community.'

(f) Harnqvist (1966) reports an investigation which demonstrates the effects of the common school on educational aspirations. The experimental group was a 10 per cent sample (n=9,298) of children born in 1948. In 1961, when the children were thirteen years old, data were collected on educational placement (the type of school, course, etc.), school marks, parental background, intelligence test scores, interests, educational and occupational plans, and school adjustment. As the data were collected when the experimental and traditional systems existed side by side, it is possible to study their comparative effects—65 per cent of pupils belonged to the traditional system. Two questions were selected for special study: Question A concerned choice of course for Grade 7 and Question B concerned the possibility of taking the 'Studentexamen' (i.e. the certificate on which university selection is based).

The major findings of the study were as follows:

(1) The proportion of children opting for academic courses was 15–16 per cent higher in the experimental system than in the traditional system—although because of difficulties in comparison the definition of academic choice was less strict for Experimental than the Traditional.

(2) Twenty per cent of pupils think that they will take the 'Studentexamen' and thirty per cent claim that they are uncertain. Again the

aspiration is higher in the Experimental group—although insufficient numbers have reached this level to compare *actual* choice.

(3) The distribution of the socio-economic scores (father's occupation plus educational level) differs between the two groups, i.e. the agricultural group over-represented in the traditional system and the better educated in the experimental system. But the data show that although in both systems there is a trend for children of higher social classes to plan an academic course to a greater extent, there is a greater tendency for pupils to choose academic courses in the Experimental system than the Traditional system *at every social level.*

(4) When intelligence is held constant, father's occupation and education is less important as a factor determining academic plans in the Experimental than in the Traditional system, but there remain large differences between socio-economic groups which cannot be accounted for by means of aptitude differences.

(5) When looking at plans to take the 'studentexamen' the hypothesis that choices are less influenced by social background in the Experimental system than in the Traditional system does not hold.

(6) When an examination is made of the relationship between school marks and choice of academic course, there is less difference between the social classes in the Experimental system especially at the higher levels of attainment i.e. lower class pupils with high marks have a greater tendency to indicate a preference for academic courses than their social class equivalents in the Traditional system. The same generalisations can also be made for expectations regarding the 'Studentexamen'. Harnqvist's broad summary is as follows:

> 'According to our results, social background still plays an important role when pupils plan for an academic type of education beyond the common undifferentiated school stages. Even if this influence seems to be somewhat less strong in the experimental comprehensive than in the traditional segregated system, the principal difference between systems is in respect to the over-all frequency of academic choices at a certain aptitude level: it is much more likely for a pupil in the experimental system to plan an academic choice'.

(g) The Swedish school reforms imposed new functions upon the teacher, in particular those teachers who had formerly taught the academically select group in Grades 7 to 9 and had henceforth to deal with a mixed scholastic population representing all levels of ability and inclination. On the other hand the changes imposed by the reforms had rather less impact upon teachers who had taught Grades 1 to 6. On the assumption that attitudes to one's job affect performance, Marklund (1963) conducted an investigation to compare attitudes to the reforms of those teachers who had been considerably affected by the reforms and those who had been less affected, and also of those teachers who had graduated from teacher training establishments of the new, reformed type and those who had graduated from traditional teacher training establishments. Thus there were four groups of graduating teachers in the study as indicated in the following table:

Teachers

Whose working conditions will be altered by the school reform	I: Graduated from Teacher Training Establishments of new, reformed type	II: Graduated from Traditional Teacher Training Establishments	Total
A. To only a minor extent	47	667	724
B. To a considerable extent	31	198	229
Total	78	875	953

A I: Normal schools (for elementary school teaching).
A II: Intermediate-grade curriculum of the school of education.
B I: Probationary-year schools (postgraduate professional training).
B II: Higher-grade curriculum of the school of education.

The respondents completed a questionnaire containing 14 'negative' statements on school reform such as:

> 'After four years in elementary school the pupils have progressed in their studies at such different rates that sectioning by scholastic qualifications is advisable'. The respondents were asked to score these statements on a scale from 1 (full agreement) to 5 (full disagreement). An information test relating to the organisation curriculum etc. of the new schools was also administered to the groups. The findings can be summarised as follows:

(1) The 'B' teachers (i.e. prospective teachers whose working conditions would be markedly altered) responded more negatively than the 'A' teachers.

(2) Prospective teachers who had experienced the new type of training had more positive attitudes in both the 'A' and 'B' categories, and especially in the type 'A' group.

(3) On the information test the students having experienced the new type of teacher education (type I) scored significantly higher than those of type II.

(4) High knowledge levels were related to positive attitudes, and low knowledge levels to negative attitudes. (It was not possible to demonstrate the causal connection, Marklund hypothesises that the more that is known about school reform, the more favourable the atmosphere which can be created for implementing the reform.)

Marklund writes:

> 'Attitudes to the school reform held by the new teachers range from the strongly positive to the strongly negative. The majority appear to have adopted a wait-and-see frame of mind. A certain distrust of the reform is discernible in many of the responses. And some teachers seem to be explicitly hostile to the comprehensive school.
>
> Higher-grade teachers are decidedly more negative to the reform than

> those in the intermediate grades. When responding to the questionnaire (May 1959), a not inconsiderable portion of the former group was apparently not disposed to accept the fact that the lower secondary school would gradually be displaced by the comprehensive school'.

It will be noted that Marklund takes the view that once the decision to reorganise the system had been taken the problem becomes one of inducing new teachers to accept it and make it work.

The research associated with the Swedish school reform has usually been quite sophisticated in design, but there have been some inevitable limitations. A particular problem has been to control the variables in a non-experimental situation. It should also be noted that problems for investigation have been determined by the needs of the reformers. (A further comment on this topic will be made in the next section.)

In general, it is probably true to say that the researches reported here, and others which have not been reported, do not provide conclusive evidence *against* the reforms, but neither do they provide any overwhelming evidence in favour of the experiment on *academic* grounds—although such non-intellective factors as interest, attitude to school, demand for a longer education and social relationships appear to develop more (for the majority) in the comprehensive system. On these grounds the Swedes have felt justified in going ahead with the reforms.

The relationship between educational research and policy

Since 1894 Swedish education has been transformed from a dual system of free but terminal elementary education and an academic secondary schooling which could be purchased to a free, common nine-year comprehensive school. This transformation parallels the rapid industrialisation of Sweden and also the growing dominance of the Swedish Democratic Party which entered the Government in 1917 and has been the party in power continuously since 1932. During the 1950s economic development was the major political pre-occupation and education received little attention. As in Britain, the dual system provided for some social mobility especially amongst the children of farmers (15-20 per cent. of pupils in the academic schools) and a little upward mobility for the sons of farm and industrial workers (5-6 per cent entering universities by the 1940s).

The 1940 School Committee was divided along lines of interest and ideology. The proposal for a six year school was supported by the elementary school teachers and opposed by the secondary school teachers, presumably on grounds of interest. Some members of the Committee urged early selection for secondary education, a view supported by the four professors of educational psychology who were consulted, but another group took the view that differentiation at the age of 11 would be affected by irrelevant social and economic factors. This group also emphasised particularly the social arguments for educating children from different social classes together.

The 1946 Parliamentary School Commission was appointed by the Social Democratic Party and included a number of left-wing members. There were no teacher members. The General Secretary was Dr. Stellan Arvidson, principal of a secondary school and one of the leading party intellectuals. The Commission began its work in the period of post-war optimism with a climate conducive to innovation. Alva Myrdal's membership of the Commission perhaps led to the ideas of the American 'progressive education' movement having some influence. It solved the 'transfer' problem which had beset the 1940 Committee by proposing the comprehensive school. A lively debate began, even before the Commission had finally reported, on the basis of statements by Arvidson and others. Almost all secondary teachers were against the proposals (only 3 out of 234 faculties were in favour). The Committee made its recommendations partly on the basis of the findings of Elmgren on the relationship between theoretical and practical activities (referred to in the previous section), but as the report of these was not published until 1952, a great deal of misunderstanding arose in the debate. The eventual publication of these findings led to some strong criticisms from 'conservative' educationists. Professor Sjöstrand of the University of Uppsala criticised both the research itself and the logic of the interpretation which the Commission placed on it, particularly the simultaneous endorsement of the view that it is not possible to assess practical aptitude until 15 years and the view that the relation between theoretical and practical ability can be assessed at 11 years. (The Commission had stated that selection according to 'theoretical' ability at 11 would steer able people away from the 'practical' courses where there was a need for them.) And although no conservative, Husén (1962) levels some important criticisms against the interpretations. Many of the bodies evaluating the report of the Commission registered concern about the effect of the proposals on the gifted. The major argument was that in hetrogeneous classes bright pupils would not be extended and would become bored. The Royal Board of Education which had to summarise the views of the education profession found it 'hazardous' to 'support such radical action' as postponing differentiation until the age of 15 upon such 'inaccurate and from the point of view of developmental psychology, insufficiently substantiated statements, as, for example, that practical ability cannot be assessed until rather late'.

This aspect of the debate reveals a familiar dilemma. The views of those working within education had considerable significance because they arose from a familiarity with the situation at the 'coal-face', but at the same time the value of this first-hand knowledge was partly vitiated by the reluctance of those within an institution to accept proposals for its reform. The decision was eventually taken on broad socio-political grounds. The Minister gave the following reasons for reform:

> 'A reform work which is intended to bridge the old gaps between social classes must see to it that the school system appears to all groups in society as a unitary construction, within which there are available and open ways for all young people and where each growing individual, independent of his social starting point in life, will have the opportunity to learn how he can best utilise his potentialities for his future tasks. Such a goal cannot be compatible with an overt or disguised parallel school system. A differentiation into separate schools should not according to my conviction take place until it is necessary with regard to vocational choice.'

He did not, however, favour one particular system of differentiation but argued for a ten-year experiment.

> 'The debate on differentiation has now been carried on so far that it seems impossible to me that any further gain shall be made by this type of inquiry. The decision must now be based upon practical experiments. The

> 10 years ahead of us before the school reform can be carried through on a wider scale, must be well used in order to determine the teaching resources, to reconsider the stability of the various structures, and to draw the definitive conclusions concerning the controversial points in the organisation of the comprehensive school.'

The Act was passed almost unanimously by Parliament and the experimental period began. Husén (1962) is in no doubt as to the basis of the proposed reforms:

> 'One might argue whether pedagogical or social reasons weighed uppermost in the minds of those favouring the introduction of the comprehensive system. According to the view taken by the present author, the School Commission regarded the social aims, creating social and cultural unity, as the most important, and conceived the psychological aims, the differentiation of aptitudes and the possibility of assessing them, as only subsidiary. In any case, some of the politicians contended the social reasons were most important.'

It was assumed that the important experiment would be a comparison of the comprehensive school and the *realskola*, but as noted above the methodological difficulties really precluded the possibility of findings with sufficient scientific validity to justify action. The 'conservative' Sjöstrand argued for the comparisons, the 'radical' Arvidson refuted the empirical investigations and regarded the experimental period as a period of practical development. Sjöstrand interpreted the research findings as follows:

> 'The experimental activities have not proved that a postponement of differentiation until Grade 9 is practicable.'

Husén interprets the findings as follows:

> 'On the basis of the experiences gained from the majority of school districts, where a differentiation in terms of number of languages has been applied, one is justified in saying that the system of electives (one or two out of four in Grade 7, two or three out of six in Grade 8) has on the whole achieved the same result as the dual system with selection of students after Grade 6. But the system of electives has had at least one important advantage: that of being much more humane to the students. Those who had failed in the reputable *realskola* had to go back to the elementary school if they were still at the age of compulsory school attendance. Those in the comprehensive school who take courses in Grades 7 and 8 which they cannot manage, or who are not capable of coping with the demands put on them in the 9g track, can go over to another class in the same school building.'

The debate has continued along predictable lines. The conservative politicians, educationists and press have argued that the reforms represent an anti-intellectualism which is inappropriate at a time when an industrialised country is highly dependent upon the development of talent (see Sjöstrand, 1967). The radical supporters of the reforms have argued that the comprehensive system does not necessarily handicap the gifted child but *does* encourage the emergence of talents of different kinds at different levels, and that moreover the comprehensive school is desirable upon social as well as educational grounds. Although on the whole he is a supporter of the reforms, Husén (1962) concludes a balanced evaluation with the following comment:

> 'One way out of the dilemma between the necessity to provide for each child an adequate education and creating more efficient educational climates by means of homogenisation, is to set up groupings, which will guarantee a higher degree of flexibility and at the same time facilitate teaching. Ability groupings, as combined with alternative courses in a system which really takes individual "profiles" into consideration, but does not lead to a homogeneous grouping of the class differential type, is one of compromise.
>
> The differentiation problem could—within the frame of reference of a certain value system—be looked upon as that of setting up the best "strategy". If the main goal is to provide for a maximum sum total of adequate education then one has to balance the advantages and disadvantages of a selective, rigid and stratified system against those of a more comprehensive, flexible and fluid system. Too much flexibility runs the risk of disintegration, and lack of ordered meaningfulness. Too little flexibility often creates a situation of fateful finality of choice or selection. Then, too—and this is often forgotten—it is a problem of weighing respective provisions for the "few" and for the "many".'

The Swedish movement towards comprehensive education has been explicitly based upon a social philosophy. Tomasson (1965) has summarised the position in this way:

> 'The central official goal that has come to dominate pre-secondary education in Sweden is essentially that the school's central concern be the general democratic development of the individual child. It is to be an education where the influence of geography, social class, and cultural background on the educational paths a pupil will follow are to be minimised. But most significantly it reflects a radically egalitarian philosophy of education where academic intelligence is no longer to be regarded as of central importance. It is an education which has changed its major emphasis from "the communication of limited knowledge to character training". The correspondence to dominant American educational thought, particularly that stemming from John Dewey, is close here, and American thought (but not American practice) is quite certainly one of the central influences in the development of the new *grundskola*. It is important to remember that these are still statements of "official" goals, not those discovered from inductive observations of the teaching in Swedish schools'.

The protagonists of the reforms concede that educational reform is basically a variety of socio-political reforms. For example, Husén (1963) writes:

> 'At a recent P.T.A. meeting where I lectured we came into the problem of secondary education. The local school principal asked in a caustic voice, "What's behind this reform—pedagogy or politics?" My answer was, "Politics, of course". Like all other social reforms, the school reform ultimately rests on political evaluations, as expressed in our democratic society by parliament. Social workers do not decide the principles governing social reforms, nor do military officers determine our country's policy on national defence. The school is no exception to the rule that citizens must comply with the democratically arrived-at decisions of the community at large. Naturally, this in no way deters the teachers from giving voice to their opinions on the methodological and pedagogical aspects of school reform. And they have done so in abundant measure. No doubt they would have

> won a more sympathetic hearing had they generally realised that the educational drawbacks cannot ever outweigh the national and individual benefits accruing from a school which caters for everybody'.

This raises the question of the role of research in the Swedish school reform. It might be argued that insofar as the investigator's problems are defined for him by policy-makers, the findings are compromised from the outset. On this question Husén (1966) makes the following points:

> 'In the first place the researcher has a rather wide margin of freedom in the sense that he must almost without exception have to re-frame the problem turned over to him by the policy maker, split it up into sub-problems and bring out its implications before he can sit down and try to work out a design which will then form the basis for a budget which he will then have to turn in to his Ministry. Secondly I cannot remember any case when I have not had complete freedom in choosing the methods I wanted for tackling the problems. The same applies to my colleagues. Thirdly, when collecting data and analysing them, in spite of very often conducting the study within a tight time schedule, it turns out that you run across problems that you otherwise would not have met, problems that are really basic.
>
> Thereby this kind of utilitarian, short-time research can contribute to promote the kind of research that academicians usually praise at their banquets, namely research that is of no use to anybody.'

There is a growing recognition among Swedish educational researchers that they must increasingly turn their attention to action research. Marklund and Soderberg (1967) write:

> 'In the last analysis the reform of education is a political question. None of the various types of differentiation has been shown to be superior to others. As far as acquisition of knowledge by pupils is concerned, it is becoming increasingly clear that the differentiation model is of subordinate importance, or that its importance is only secondary since it provides the framework for different forms of study and work. Then it is necessary to discover where different forms of work and study lead. It is probably in this that the greatest cause of the differences will be found. There is good reason therefore to make forms of study and instruction the prime tasks of educational research'.

Thus the structure of education is taken as given, the outcome of political decisions based on an egalitarian philosophy, and the problem becomes one of maximising the effectiveness of different curricula and methods of teaching. The most recent investigations have been carried out in these areas and also in the area of teacher education. (See Husén, 1965, Husén and Dahllof, 1965, Husén et al, 1965.)

Conclusion

As a most general conclusion it can be said that those countries which have had an educational structure which has segregated the most intelligent pupils at the secondary level tend to be moving towards comprehensive education, but at different rates. Those countries, such as Sweden, which have made the most progress in their transition to comprehensive education tend to be turning their attention to the problems of differentiation, curriculum and methods *within* the comprehensive schools. Those countries which have had a comprehensive system are facing the problem of the informal stratification of schools and are also concerned with problems of differentiation, curriculum and methods which will compensate the culturally-deprived child and will also permit the full development of the very able child within a comprehensive system of education.

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APPENDIX 6

THE QUESTIONNAIRES AND A SURVEY OF THE REPLIES

Section 1 *Introduction*

Section 2 *The general questionnaire*
  Copy of the questionnaire
  Results of the survey

Section 3 *The survey of leavers from direct grant schools 1967–68*
  Copy of the form and explanatory notes
  Results of the survey

Section 4 *The questionnaire to local education authorities*
  Copy of the questionnaire
  Results of the survey

Section 5 *Questions put to governing bodies of direct grant schools*
  Copy of enclosure 'A'[1]
  Extracts from the replies

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[1] Enclosure 'B' was confined to financial matters and is dealt with in Appendix 7.

SECTION 1 INTRODUCTION

(a) *The general questionnaire*
This was sent to the head teachers of all schools which receive direct grant. It covers the size of premises, methods of entry to the school, the abilities of pupils admitted, arrangements for religious instruction, comprehensive education and the freedom and independence enjoyed by direct grant schools. Completion of the questionnaire must have been a laborious task for heads and their administrative staffs and we are grateful for the trouble they took over it. The figures given relate to the year 1967–68.

For independent day schools, information about day pupils at schools which were members of the Headmasters' Conference, the Association of Governing Bodies of Public Schools or the Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools and a sample of other independent schools was available from the survey conducted by Mr. Kalton and from our own work for the First Report. We decided not to conduct a further survey of independent schools.

(b) *The survey of school leavers*
This was sent to the head teachers of all direct grant schools. The aim was to discover some outline facts about the generation who left the schools during and at the end of the academic year 1967–68. The topics covered are the age at which pupils left, their achievements in public examinations, their destination after leaving school and the occupation of the pupils' fathers.

(c) *The questionnaire to local authorities*
This was sent to all local education authorities in England and Wales. The survey covers the numbers of places taken by local authorities at direct grant and independent schools, the publicity given to their arrangements, methods of selection and progress on comprehensive reorganisation. Authorities using independent schools were asked to send copies of their income scale if they charged any parents a graded fee.

(d) *The questions put to governing bodies*
Enclosure 'A' was sent to the governing bodies of all direct grant schools. It covered comprehensive reorganisation as well as the principle of central government grant. However on comparison the replies on comprehensive reorganisation turned out in nearly every case to be similar to those given by the head teachers in the General Questionnaire. Since the General Questionnaire elicited a 100 per cent response while not all governing bodies replied to Enclosure 'A' it was decided to confine the extracts to what the governors had to say on the principle of central government grant.

NOTES ON TERMS USED

(a) A stop (.) appearing in the body of a table indicates a negligible percentage. A dash (—) indicates a nil return. Percentages have been individually rounded so that the sum of the percentages may not exactly match the appropriate total (100 per cent unless otherwise stated). Local education authority has been abbreviated as L.E.A. in some places.

(b) *Upper and lower schools*

One hundred and nineteen of the 178 direct grant schools have junior departments, known as lower schools (see Chapter 4). Figures about upper schools therefore relate to all 178 schools, figures about lower schools only to those 119.

(c) *Boys' and girls' schools*

There are 81 boys', 95 girls' and 2 mixed schools on the direct grant list. Unless there is a statement to the contrary, the mixed schools have been included only in tables relating to all schools and all pupils.

(d) *Day schools and boarding schools*

Boarding schools should be taken as all schools with 25 per cent or more of pupils boarding, unless there is a statement to the contrary.

(e) *Roman Catholic schools*

There are 19 boys' and 37 girls' Roman Catholic schools.

(f) *Schools with large sixth forms*

These are the twenty boys' and twenty girls' schools with the largest sixth forms at January, 1968, excluding Roman Catholic schools. Size of sixth form was used as an objective criterion which would include most of the large civic schools with which the term 'direct grant' is so often associated. Inclusion in this list or exclusion from it does not imply any view upon the part of the Commission of the excellence of any particular school.

Schools with large sixth forms

Boys' schools

Abingdon School
Alleyn's School, Dulwich
Bablake School, Coventry
Bedford Modern School
Birkenhead School
Bolton School
Bradford Grammar School
Brentwood School
Bristol Grammar School
Haberdashers' Aske's School, Elstree
King Edward's School, Birmingham
King Henry VIII School, Coventry
Latymer Upper School, Hammersmith
Leeds Grammar School
Manchester Grammar School
Merchant Taylors' School, Great Crosby
Newcastle Royal Grammar School
Portsmouth Grammar School
Queen Elizabeth Grammar School, Wakefield
William Hulme's Grammar School, Manchester

Girls' schools

Birkenhead High School
Bolton Girls' School
Bradford Girls' Grammar School
Bury Grammar School for Girls
Croydon High School
Dame Alice Harpur School, Bedford
The King's High School, Warwick
King Edward VI High School for Girls, Birmingham
Manchester High School
Newcastle Central High School
North London Collegiate School, Middlesex
Nottingham High School
Perse School for Girls, Cambridge
Putney High School
Queen Mary School, Lytham
Stamford High School
Sutton High School
Talbot Heath School, Bournemouth
Wakefield Girls' School
Walthamstow Hall, Sevenoaks

(g) *Trinity School of John Whitgift*

This school became independent on 1st August 1968, and did not complete the Commission's questionnaire. The figures in the Appendix therefore omit any details for this school. This accounts for some slight differences between these figures and those in the Statistics of Education 1968.

SECTION 2 GENERAL

(i) *Copy of questionnaire*

PUBLIC SCHOOLS COMMISSION

CURZON STREET HOUSE CURZON STREET LONDON W1

QUESTIONNAIRE TO HEADS OF DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS

NOTES

(*i*) *Where a question has a series of alternative answers, ring the appropriate answer.*

(*ii*) *The term "upper school" is used as defined in the Direct Grant Schools Regulations,* 1959.

(*iii*) *Academic year means* 1*st August to the following* 31*st July.*

1. Name of School .... Number....../.........

2. *School premises*

What is the approximate area of :— Acres

(a) the entire school site, including buildings, playing fields, gardens, paved areas etc.

(b) that portion occupied by buildings including courtyards and paved areas

(c) that portion allocated to playing fields

(d) other areas

3. *Number of pupils*

(i) *Upper school*

Give the number of pupils in the upper school on Thursday, 18th January, 1968, in each of the following categories:—

		L.E.A. free places	L.E.A. reserved places	Governors' free places	Residuary places	Total
Day	Boys					
	Girls					
Boarding	Boys					
	Girls					

(ii) *Lower school* (where applicable)

Give the number of pupils in the lower school on Thursday, 18th January, 1968.

Day	Boys	
	Girls	
Boarding	Boys	
	Girls	

4. (i) Give the number of new entrants to the upper school in the academic year 1967–68 at the following ages:

		Number of pupils admitted in 1967–68 whose age on 31st December, 1967 was:							
		10 or under	11	12	13	14	15	16 or over	Total
Day pupils	L.E.A. free places								
	L.E.A. reserved places								
	Governors' free places								
	Residuary places								
	Total								
Boarding pupils	L.E.A. free places								
	L.E.A. reserved places								
	Governors' free places								
	Residuary places								
	Total								

(ii) If there is a lower school, what is the normal age for entry?

5. How many pupils have been admitted to the upper school, from which local education authority areas, in the past 3 years? Please give separate figures for each local education authority in columns 3 to 6

Day pupils

1	2 L.E.A. areas	3 L.E.A. free places	4 L.E.A. reserved places	5 Governors' free places	6 Residuary places
1965/66					
1966/67					
1967/68					

Boarding pupils

	L.E.A. areas	L.E.A. free places	L.E.A. reserved places	Governors' free places	Residuary places
1965/66					
1966/67					
1967/68					

Selection of pupils

6. What do you tell parents who inquire about the selection procedure for admission to the school? Please attach two copies of any leaflets which are given to parents who seek information about the school or about the procedure for selecting its pupils.

7. *Entry of day pupils to the upper school*

(i) Please enter or ring the appropriate answers in each column below. Details about any exceptions to the general practice should be entered in answer to question (iv) below.

	L.E.A. free places	L.E.A. reserved places	Governors' free places (if any)	Residuary places
(a) Do candidates for entry to the school take a written entrance exam?*	Yes No	Yes No	Yes No or No free places	Yes No
(b) *If yes* Is the examination competitive or qualifying?*	competitive qualifying	competitive qualifying	competitive qualifying	competitive qualifying
(c) Please add any further comments which you think are necessary to explain the character of the examination				
(d) Who sets the examinationL?	L.E.A. school another body	L.E.A. school another body	L.E.A. school another body	L.E.A. school another body
(e) If "another body" at (d) above, please name the body				
(f) Who marks the examination?	L.E.A. school	L.E.A. school	L.E.A. school	L.E.A. school
(g) What other factors are taken into account besides performance in the written examination?	interview report of primary school distance of home from school a parent is an old pupil brother or sister in school denominational preference others (specify)	interview report of primary school distance of home from school a parent is an old pupil brother or sister in school denominational preference others (specify)	interview report of primary school distance of home from school a parent is an old pupil brother or sister in school denominational preference others (specify)	interview report of primary school distance of home from school a parent is an old pupil brother or sister in school denominational preference others (specify)

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* *Examination includes test. "Competitive examination" implies that candidates are admitted to the school according to order of merit in the examination. "Qualifying examination" implies that all pupils reaching the set standard may be considered for admission: selection within this group would then involve other criteria besides success in the examination.*

(ii) Please specify any differences in the selection of pupils between the four categories of places—L.E.A. free, reserved, Governors' free and residuary—which are not brought out clearly in the above answers (e.g. do any entrants take different papers in the entrance examination or are there different pass marks).

(iii) *If there is no written examination for some or all entrants*, what is the procedure and what are the criteria for selecting pupils? (Distinguish as necessary between L.E.A. free places, reserved places, Governors' free places and residuary places).

(iv) Any comments intended to clarify the above answers (e.g. are there different arrangements for pupils entering at 13 plus rather than 11 plus; do the practices of different L.E.A.s vary?).

8. *Entry of boarding pupils to upper school*

(i) Are there differences between the methods or criteria for selecting pupils for boarding and day places?

Yes

No

(ii) If so, what are these differences?

9. *Transfer from lower school* (if applicable)

(i) Do the arrangements for entering the upper school from the lower school differ in any way from the procedures at 6. and 7. above?

Yes

No

(ii) If yes, what are the differences?

(iii) How many pupils left the lower school in 1967–68 (to go to the upper school or any other school) on reaching the age of transfer to the upper school?

☐

(iv) How many of them applied for admission to the upper school (i.e. to enter in 1968–69)?

(v) How many were successful?

(vi) How many of the successful candidates had attended maintained schools immediately prior to entering the *lower* school?

(a) Those awarded L.E.A. free places in the upper school

(b) Those awarded Governors' free places in the upper school

(c) Those awarded reserved places in the upper school

(d) Those awarded residuary places in the upper school

10. *Intelligence quotients*

For pupils admitted to the upper school in 1967–68 (or latest year available)

Please give the distribution of I.Qs* or V.R.Qs at about the time of entry to upper school

Numbers of pupils

		I.Q. or V.R.Q. Not known	I.Q. or V.R.Q. Less than 90	I.Q. or V.R.Q. 90–99	I.Q. or V.R.Q. 100–109	I.Q. or V.R.Q. 110–119	I.Q. or V.R.Q. 120–129	I.Q. or V.R.Q. 130–139	I.Q. or V.R.Q. 140 or above
Day places	L.E.A. free places								
	L.E.A. reserved places								
	Governors' free places								
	Residuary places								
Boarding places	L.E.A. free places								
	L.E.A. reserved places								
	Governors' free places								
	Residuary places								

* *Note* Based on a standard deviation of 15 (e.g. Moray House). If tests were based on a different standard deviation please state the name of the test and give the standard deviation (if known)

11. *Governors' free places and residuary places only*

	Governors' free places	Residuary places
(i) How many pupils entering in 1967–68 had been graded by a local education authority as suitable for a grammar school education?		
(ii) How many had been graded as not suitable for a grammar school education?		
(iii) How many had not been graded?		
(iv) For how many are the answers to (i), (ii), and (iii) not known?		
Total entering 1967–68		

12. *Religious worship and instruction*

(i) Does the school's charter or other instrument of foundation prescribe any denominational character? Yes No

(ii) If so, what?

(iii) What, if any, is the denominational character of the school's week-day services?

(iv) If the school has Sunday services, what, if any, is their denominational character?

13. (i) How many pupils are excused from religious worship and/or religious instruction at the present date?

	No. excused from worship	No. excused from religious instruction
(a) Sixth Form pupils		
(b) All other pupils (upper school only)		

(ii) Are any groups of pupils not given religious instruction? If so, please explain the arrangements and state the approximate numbers of pupils affected.

14. *Comprehensive reorganisation*

(i) Has agreement been reached with any L.E.A. as to the role the school should play in a scheme of comprehensive reorganisation?

Yes

No

(ii) If so, name the L.E.A.(s).

(iii) If no agreement has yet been reached, which, if any, of the six main forms of comprehensive education listed in Circular 10/65 (paragraph 3) would you consider suitable for the school? (If more than one please indicate the order of preference).

(iv) What are your personal views about the part your school could play in the movement towards comprehensive reorganisation?

15. *General*

(a) Do you consider that the headmaster or headmistress and teaching staff have greater or less freedom than the staff of a maintained school? If so, in what ways? If you wish to distinguish between county, voluntary controlled and voluntary aided schools, please do so.

(b) Do you consider that the headmaster or headmistress and teaching staff have greater or less freedom than the staff of an independent school? If so, in what ways?

16. What do you consider to be the effect upon your school of the payment of full or graded fees by the parents of some of your pupils?

17(a). Are there other advantages or disadvantages which the direct grant schools have compared with maintained schools?

17(b) Are there other advantages or disadvantages which the direct grant schools have compared with independent schools?

(ii) *Results of the survey*

The following tabulated results follow the order of the questions in the questionnaire.

1. [Name of school]

2 School site

Table 2A

Average area of school site (including buildings, playing fields, gardens, paved areas etc)

Acres

Type of school	Boys' schools: All schools	Boys' schools: Roman Catholic schools	Boys' schools: Schools with large VIth forms	Girls' schools: All schools	Girls' schools: Roman Catholic schools	Girls' schools: Schools with large VIth forms
50% or more boarding pupils	78	—	—	61	—	—
25% or more and under 50% boarding pupils	36	—	53	24	—	25
Less than 25% boarding pupils	29	22	45	13	15	11
Day only (100% day pupils)	22	20	29	9	8	14
No. of schools stating areas	81	19	20	95	37	20
No. of schools in survey	81	19	20	95	37	20

Table 2B

Average area occupied by buildings (including courtyards and paved areas)

Acres

Type of school	Boys' schools			Girls' schools		
	All schools	Roman Catholic schools	Schools with large VIth forms	All schools	Roman Catholic schools	Schools with large VIth forms
50% or more boarding pupils	8	—	—	2	—	—
25% or more and under 50% boarding pupils	5	—	6	3	—	2
Less than 25% boarding pupils	5	4	5	2	2	2
Day only (100% day pupils)	3	3	4	2	2	2
No. of schools stating areas	81	19	20	95	37	20
No. of schools in survey	81	19	20	95	37	20

Table 2C

Average area occupied by playing fields

Acres

Type of school	Boys' schools			Girls' schools		
	All schools	Roman Catholic schools	Schools with large VIth forms	All schools	Roman Catholic schools	Schools with large VIth forms
50% or more boarding pupils	32	—	—	9	—	—
25% or more and under 50% boarding pupils	25	—	39	10	—	9
Less than 25% boarding pupils	20	17	28	5	6	5
Day only (100% day pupils)	16	13	21	5	5	7
No. of schools stating areas	81	19	20	95	37	20
No. of schools in survey	81	19	20	95	37	20

Table 2D

Numbers of upper schools in various categories

Type of school	Boys' schools			Girls' schools		
	All schools	Roman Catholic schools	Schools with large VIth forms	All schools	Roman Catholic schools	Schools with large VIth forms
50% or more boarding pupils	14	—	—	1	—	—
25% or more and under 50% boarding pupils	9	—	2	6	—	1
Less than 25% boarding pupils	18	4	5	14	6	3
Day only (100% day pupils)	40	15	13	74	31	16
No. of schools in survey	81	19	20	95	37	20

3 *Number of pupils*

Table 3A

Number of pupils in upper schools at 18th January, 1968

Type of place	Day pupils				Boarding pupils			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4
1. L.E.A. free and reserved	26,944	61	31,546	65	1,218	18	532	27
2. Governors' free	440	1	275	1	342	5	100	5
3. Residuary	16,569	38	16,162	34	5,137	77	1,358	68
4. Total	43,953	100	47,983	100	6,697	100	1,990	100

Table 3B

Number of pupils in the upper schools at 18th January, 1968
(Schools with large VIth forms)

Type of place	Day pupils				Boarding pupils			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4
1. L.E.A. free and reserved	7,948	49	6,230	53	162	24	108	27
2. Governors' free	134	1	58	1	—	—	2	1
3. Residuary	8,225	50	5,387	46	523	76	292	73
4. Total	16,307	100	11,675	100	685	100	402	100

Table 3C

Number of pupils in the upper schools at 18th January, 1968
(Roman Catholic schools)

Type of place	Day pupils				Boarding pupils			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4
1. L.E.A. free and reserved	11,517	90	18,066	84	102	32	197	54
2. Governors' free	3	•	64	•	—	—	6	2
3. Residuary	1,240	10	3,315	15	214	68	164	45
4. Total	12,760	100	21,445	99	316	100	367	101

Table 3D

Number of pupils in the upper schools at 18th January, 1968
(Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

Type of place	Day pupils				Boarding pupils			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4	No.	% of line 4
1. L.E.A. free and reserved	2,864	56	1,020	56	1,004	19	157	15
2. Governors' free	173	3	44	2	311	6	86	8
3. Residuary	2,039	40	745	41	4,058	76	811	77
4. Total	5,076	99	1,809	99	5,373	101	1,054	100

Table 3E

*Number of pupils in lower schools at 18th January, 1968**

	Boys	Girls
Day	5,839	9,953
Boarding	610	150
Total	6,449†	10,103

* Including 24 boys and 105 girls in 2 girls' schools which closed in July 1968.

† There were 536 day boys in 24 of the girls' lower schools.

4 Numbers of new entrants to the upper school in the academic year 1967–68 at various ages

Table 4A

Number of new entrants to upper schools in the academic year 1967–68*

	Day pupils								Boarding pupils							
Age on 31st December, 1967	L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
10 or under	53	91	7	3	170	112	230	206	2	1	—	—	66	4	68	5
11	2,920	3,525	66	26	1,817	2,087	4,803	5,638	71	52	32	11	388	129	491	192
12	935	1,232	14	6	798	737	1,747	1,975	37	20	12	10	180	73	229	103
13	71	90	—	2	168	102	239	194	10	5	—	—	203	29	213	34
14	43	57	1	1	94	104	138	162	11	4	3	—	103	16	117	20
15	22	46	—	1	39	59	61	106	6	4	—	—	31	22	37	26
16 or over	168	201	1	—	132	214	301	415	4	3	3	1	71	38	78	42
Total	4,212	5,242	89	39	3,218	3,415	7,519	8,696	141	89	50	22	1,042	311	1,233	422

*Not including pupils in mixed schools

Table 4B

Number of new entrants to upper schools in the academic year 1967–68

(Schools with large VIth forms)

	Day pupils								Boarding pupils							
Age on 31st December, 1967	L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
10 or under	14	7	2	—	89	12	105	19	1	—	—	—	1	1	2	1
11	843	651	30	2	836	689	1,709	1,342	10	10	—	—	37	39	47	49
12	246	229	7	—	348	227	601	456	3	9	—	—	24	16	27	25
13	30	39	—	—	75	30	105	69	2	1	—	—	14	1	16	2
14	18	15	—	—	42	25	60	40	4	1	—	—	11	1	15	2
15	6	8	—	—	10	20	16	28	1	1	—	—	2	2	3	3
16 or over	14	31	1	—	53	80	68	111	1	—	2	—	9	7	12	7
Total	1,171	980	40	2	1,453	1,083	2,664	2,065	22	22	2	—	98	67	122	89

Table 4C

Number of new entrants to upper schools in the academic year 1967–68

(*Roman Catholic schools*)

	Day pupils								Boarding pupils							
Age on 31st December, 1967	L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
10 or under	22	73	—	—	1	19	23	92	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	1
11	1,354	2,176	3	9	197	466	1,554	2,651	10	13	—	1	20	16	30	30
12	396	758	—	2	71	186	467	946	1	6	—	4	3	3	4	13
13	21	42	—	2	12	25	33	69	1	1	—	—	2	3	3	4
14	17	33	—	1	14	43	31	77	1	2	—	—	3	2	4	4
15	6	31	—	1	7	19	13	51	1	—	—	—	16	2	17	2
16 or over	132	155	—	—	13	26	145	181	1	1	—	—	2	10	3	11
Total	1,948	3,268	3	15	315	784	2,266	4,067	15	23	—	5	47	37	62	65

Table 4D

Number of new entrants to upper schools in the academic year 1967–68

(Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

Age on 31st December, 1967	Day pupils								Boarding pupils							
	L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
10 or under	8	—	2	—	41	3	51	3	2	—	—	—	57	1	59	1
11	313	130	19	8	202	85	534	223	51	23	29	8	324	75	404	106
12	138	28	4	1	103	32	245	61	34	5	10	6	138	50	182	61
13	21	1	—	—	26	5	47	6	9	3	—	—	185	26	194	29
14	6	2	1	—	17	—	24	2	8	—	3	—	91	13	102	13
15	6	2	—	—	7	2	13	4	4	1	—	—	11	15	15	16
16 or over	13	—	—	—	15	5	28	5	2	2	2	1	49	14	53	17
Total	505	163	26	9	411	132	942	304	110	34	44	15	855	194	1,009	243

Table 4E

Lowest age of entry to lower schools

No. of schools

Age in years	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Boys*	—	4	—	14	28	5	—
Girls*	17	37	1	6	3	3	—
Total	17	41	1	20	32†	8	—

* Schools have been classified according to whether the upper schools catered for boys or girls. Twenty of the girls' schools admitted boys to the lower school.

† Including one mixed school.

Table 4F

Ages at which lower schools admit pupils*

No. of schools

Age in years	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Boys**	—	4	—	18	34	18	7
Girls**	17	45	4	19	16	12	5
Total	17	49	4	37	51†	30	12

* Some schools had several ages at which they admitted pupils and all these have been noted.

** Schools have been classified according to whether the upper schools catered for boys or girls. Twenty-three of the girls' schools admitted boys to the lower school.

† Including one mixed school.

5 *Numbers of pupils admitted in 1965–66, 1966–67 and 1967–68 from various local authority areas*

Table 5A

Number of local education authority areas from which schools recruit day pupils for entry to upper schools

	No. of L.E.A.s from which schools recruit	No. of schools
1965/66	1	18
	2	42
	3	45
	4	26
	5 or more	47
Total		178
1966/67	1	15
	2	31
	3	57
	4	25
	5 or more	50
Total		178
1967/68	1	14
	2	38
	3	44
	4	32
	5 or more	50
Total		178

Note: A number of schools accepted entrants (usually boarding but some day pupils), from areas other than the local education authority areas of England and Wales, and also children of British Forces posted overseas. These areas included Scotland, Ireland and various foreign and Commonwealth countries.

Figures relating to these entrants have been excluded from Tables 5A to 5E and included in Tables 5F to 5J.

Table 5B

Number of local education authority areas from which schools recruit day pupils for entry to upper schools

(*Schools with large VIth forms*)

	No. of L.E.A.s from which schools recruit	No. of schools
1965/66	1	2
	2	4
	3	9
	4	3
	5 or more	22
Total		40
1966/67	1	2
	2	4
	3	9
	4	4
	5 or more	21
Total		40
1967/68	1	1
	2	5
	3	9
	4	5
	5 or more	20
Total		40

See note to Table 5A

Table 5C

Number of local education authority areas from which schools recruit day pupils for entry to upper schools

(Roman Catholic schools)

	No. of L.E.A.s from which schools recruit	No. of schools
1965/66	1	1
	2	17
	3	14
	4	11
	5 or more	13
Total		56
1966/67	1	1
	2	13
	3	22
	4	6
	5 or more	14
Total		56
1967/68	1	1
	2	18
	3	15
	4	8
	5 or more	14
Total		56

See note to Table 5A

Table 5D

Number of local education authority areas from which schools recruit day pupils for entry to upper schools

(Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

	No. of L.E.A.s from which schools recruit	No. of schools
1965/66	1	10
	2	9
	3	10
	4	—
	5 or more	1
Total		30
1966/67	1	9
	2	6
	3	12
	4	2
	5 or more	1
Total		30
1967/68	1	10
	2	7
	3	7
	4	4
	5 or more	2
Total		30

See note to Table 5A

Table 5E

Number of local education authority areas from which schools recruit boarding pupils for entry to upper schools

	No. of L.E.A.s from which schools recruit	No. of schools
1965/66	Not known	1
	1	2
	2	8
	3	5
	4	10
	5 or more	37
Total		63
1966/67	1	4
	2	5
	3	9
	4	6
	5 or more	39
Total		63
1967/68	1	7
	2	5
	3	7
	4	7
	5 or more	37
Total		63

See note to Table 5A

Table 5F

Percentages of free and reserved day places taken up by local education authorities outside the area of the school's local education authority

Percentages	No. of schools
No L.E.A. places taken up	2
0–24	70
25–49	44
50–74	42
75–100	20

See note to Table 5A

Table 5G

Percentages of free and reserved day places taken up by local education authorities outside the area of the school's local education authority
(Schools with large VIth forms)

Percentages	No. of schools
0–24	18
25–49	10
50–74	7
75–100	5

See note to Table 5A

Table 5H

Percentages of free and reserved day places taken up by local education authorities outside the area of the school's local education authority
(Roman Catholic schools)

Percentages	No. of schools
0–24	11
25–49	19
50–74	20
75–100	6

See note to Table 5A

Table 5I

Percentages of free and reserved day places taken up by local education authorities outside the area of the school's local education authority

(Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

Percentages	No. of schools
No L.E.A. places taken up	2
0–24	20
25–49	5
50–74	2
75–100	1

See note to Table 5A

Table 5J

Percentages of free and reserved boarding places taken up by local education authorities outside the area of the school's local education authority

Percentages	No. of schools
No L.E.A. places taken up	12
0–24	11
25–49	6
50–74	5
75–100	29

See note to Table 5A

6 Selection of pupils

In answer to this question, most schools sent in leaflets or prospectuses which explained the procedure for parents. These leaflets and replies were helpful but were not readily susceptible to statistical analysis.

7(*i*) *Entry of day pupils to the upper school*

Table 7(i)A

Entry of day pupils to the upper school (examination particulars)

Type of examination		Numbers and percentages of schools using method of entry for each type of place					
		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places	
		Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages
Written examination	Qualifying	51	29	24	30	74	42
	Competitive	72	41	52	65	78	44
No examination		34	19	2	2	4	2
More than one of the above types of entry*		18	10	2	2	20	11
No. of schools answering the question		175		80†		176	

* Some schools had more than one method of entry for pupils. This happened because pupils came from different L.E.A. areas or because there were different methods of selection for pupils of different ages.

† Excluding 97 schools with no governors' free places.

Table 7(i)B

Entry of day pupils to the upper school (examination particulars)
(Schools with large VIth forms)

Type of examination		Numbers and percentages of schools using method of entry for each type of place					
		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places	
		Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages
Written examination	Qualifying	5	13	2	12	9	22
	Competitive	23	59	16	88	26	65
No examination		5	13	—	—	—	—
More than one of the above types of entry*		6	15	—	—	5	12
No. of schools answering the question		39		18†		40	

* See footnote to Table 7(i)A

† Excluding 22 schools with no governors' free places.

Table 7(i)C

Entry of day pupils to the upper school (examination particulars) (Roman Catholic schools)

Type of examination		Numbers and percentages of schools using method of entry for each type of place					
		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places	
		Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages
Written examination	Qualifying	18	33	11	61	30	56
	Competitive	21	38	5	28	18	33
No examination		11	20	1	6	3	6
More than one of the above types of entry*		5	9	1	6	3	6
No. of schools answering the question		55		18†		54	

* See footnote to Table 7(i)A.

† Excluding 37 schools with no governors' free places.

Table 7(i)D

Entry of day pupils to the upper school (examination particulars) (Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

Type of examination		Numbers and percentages of schools using method of entry for each type of place					
		L.E.A. free and reserved places		Governors' free places		Residuary places	
		Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages	Numbers	Percentages
Written examination	Qualifying	14	48	6	27	15	50
	Competitive	7	24	16	73	9	30
No examination		5	17	—	—	—	—
More than one of the above types of entry*		3	10	—	—	6	20
No. of schools answering the question		29		22†		30	

* See footnote to Table 7(i)A

† Excluding 8 schools with no governors' free places.

Table 7(i)E

Other examination particulars

Entrance examination	Number of schools L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places	Residuary places
Set by:			
L.E.A.	78	1	4
School	35	69	142
Other body	9	4	11
More than one of the above*	21	2	15
Marked by:			
L.E.A.	78	1	4
School	47	73	162
Other body	3	2	4
More than one of the above*	15	—	2

* Some schools had different procedures for examination arrangements for pupils from different L.E.A.'s or of different ages.

Table 7(i)F

Other factors taken into account for selection

Number of schools

	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places	Residuary places
1. Interview	71	49	126
2. Report of primary school	104	57	148
3. Distance of home from school	35	9	37
4. Parent an old pupil	40	17	95
5. Brother or sister in school	49	25	123
6. Denominational preference	52	22	69
7. Other factors	19	15	28
Number of schools*	138	72	170

Note: Some of the factors listed above were only taken into account if applicants were not otherwise distinguishable. This particularly applied to factors 4 and 5 which were often stated to be of only minor importance.

Other factors included such considerations as parental wish for a smaller or single sex school.

* Some schools took into account more than one of the above factors when selecting pupils.

Table 7(i)G

Other factors taken into account for selection (Schools with large VIth forms)

Number of schools

	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places	Residuary places
1. Interview	17	10	28
2. Report of primary school	27	14	34
3. Distance of home from school	8	—	8
4. Parent an old pupil	4	3	15
5. Brother or sister in school	6	4	23
6. Denominational preference	2	1	2
7. Other factors	4	4	8

See notes on Table 7(i) F

Table 7(i)H

Other factors taken into account for selection (Roman Catholic schools)

Number of schools

	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places	Residuary places
1. Interview	18	10	35
2. Report of primary school	24	12	45
3. Distance of home from school	8	3	10
4. Parent an old pupil	16	9	39
5. Brother or sister in school	19	11	44
6. Denominational preference	41	15	49
7. Other factors	3	3	7

See notes on Table 7(i) F

Table 7(i)I

Other factors taken into account for selection (Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

Number of schools

	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places	Residuary places
1. Interview	17	16	23
2. Report of primary school	20	15	24
3. Distance of home from school	6	3	9
4. Parent an old pupil	8	3	17
5. Brother or sister in school	8	6	19
6. Denominational preference	7	4	9
7. Other factors	6	5	5

See notes on Table 7(i) F

7(ii) *Differences in method of selection between the four kinds of pupil (Local education authority free, local education authority reserved, Governors' free and residuary place holders)*

In answering this question, 59 schools said that there were no differences which had not already been brought out in their answer to Question 7(i). Many heads here made the point that the school examination for governors' places and residuary places and the local education authority examination for free and reserved places were quite separate. Table 7(i)E demonstrates this. The local education authorities selected pupils in a number of different ways, putting a varying degree of emphasis on intelligence tests, teachers' assessments, primary school profiles etc. Having established by these means which children were to receive a grammar school education, they had to choose which should go to the direct grant school. In appropriate cases this was done on the basis of denominational preference. In others, the local education authority might send to the direct grant schools candidates who had passed their assessment test and whose parents had given the direct grant school as their first choice. Sometimes the candidates would be taken in order of merit until the number of places the local education authority elected to take had been filled, but in a few areas the order of merit was modified by geographical restrictions on who could attend the direct grant school, or by asking the direct grant school to accept pupils from various ability bands. Twenty-three schools mentioned that they received free and reserved place pupils from two or more local education authorities selected by different methods.

The school examinations generally consisted of tests in English and Arithmetic, sometimes Intelligence Tests as well. Many heads interviewed candidates. Where governors' places were offered, the candidates were sometimes asked to sit supplementary papers. A few local education authorities awarded free and reserved places on the basis of reports submitted to them about performance in these school examinations. Sometimes local education authority candidates who had been selected by other means were asked to sit the papers simply to discover the level of their attainments for the purpose of form placement. Head teachers mentioned that a number of children who entered as free place holders had also sat the school examination as an insurance. Besides selecting for residuary places, some schools had also to pare down the list of local education authority candidates because the authority put forward more than could be admitted. This was generally done by means of interviews.

7(iii) The admission of candidates who took no written examination

Two schools admitted pupils from their junior departments without written examination on the grounds that their abilities were adequately known. Otherwise admissions of this kind were almost entirely confined to pupils transferred at some age later than 11 from other maintained and direct grant grammar schools. These were generally accepted on the recommendation of their head teacher and an interview. A number of schools admitted pupils with five or more 'O' levels to their sixth forms without examining them.

7(iv) Additional comments on the procedure for admissions

Many head teachers had nothing to add under this heading and some who did complete it, used it for comments of the same kind as are summarised in 7(ii) and 7(iii).

Some boys' schools, particularly those with strong boarding sides, used the Common Entrance examination to assess candidates at 13, while others had their own tests for the occasional pupil admitted at any age between 11 and 13. Girls' schools preferred their own tests and made little use of Common Entrance, but 5 of them did admit children sent by the local education authority at 12+ or 13+ because they had been re-assessed as suitable for grammar school.

Ten schools said that their local education authorities were not prepared to pay fees for any pupil entering the school at an age older than 11.

8 Entry of boarding pupils to upper school

Five girls' and nineteen boys' schools said that there were differences in the methods of selecting day and boarding pupils. Eleven schools said that although boarders took the same selection tests as day pupils, it was easier for them to pass because the demand for boarding places was smaller. Three schools observed the opposite trend. Seven schools mentioned that they took account of boarding need in the selection of boarding pupils. A few others made provision for special types of need (e.g. widows' sons) in accordance with their foundation statutes.

9 Transfer from lower school

Twelve boys' schools and twenty-nine girls' schools said that the procedures for transfer from the lower to the upper school did differ from the procedure for external candidates.

The most common difference mentioned in answer to 9(ii) was that the entrance examination for lower school pupils was qualifying, not competitive. Six boys' and ten girls' schools said this. Eight schools said that they took into account the general record of the candidate as a lower school pupil, while six had entirely replaced examination of lower school pupils by continuous assessment.

Several schools said that the low failure rate in transfer from lower to upper schools reflected accurate selection of pupils for the lower school. A few schools, mostly for girls, sometimes admitted borderline candidates to the upper school on probation for a year or two. Several heads mentioned that, where a pupil from the lower school was obviously going to find the work in the upper school too hard, they informed the parents well in advance in order that alternative arrangements could be made.

9(ii) *Number of pupils who left the lower school in 1967–68 (to go to the upper school or any other school) on reaching the age of transfer to the upper school*

Table 9(ii)A

Number of pupils leaving lower schools at age of transfer

	All lower schools		Schools with large sixth forms		Roman Catholic schools		Schools with more than 25% boarding	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Number of pupils leaving lower schools	2,030	2,156	788	681	328	350	389	120
Number who applied to enter upper schools in 1967–68	1,934	1,974	767	629	317	300	378	116
Number of successful applicants	1,792	1,834	728	592	266	261	363	98
Number of schools in survey	51	67	14	18	9	15	13	5

***Note:* This table excludes the mixed school which has a lower school.**

Table 9(ii)B

Percentages of pupils leaving lower schools at age of transfer, who apply to enter upper schools and percentages successful

	All lower schools		Schools with large VIth forms		Roman Catholic schools		Schools with more than 25% boarding	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Applicants to upper schools as a percentage of those leaving lower schools	95·3	91·6	97·3	92·4	96·6	85·7	97·2	96·7
Number successful as a percentage of applicants	92·7	92·9	94·9	94·1	83·9	87·0	96·0	84·5
Number successful as a percentage of those leaving lower schools	88·3	85·1	92·4	86·9	81·1	74·6	93·3	81·7

Note: This table excludes the mixed school which has a lower school.

10 *Intelligence Quotients*

Table 10A

Distribution of Intelligence Quotients (I.Q.) or Verbal Reasoning Quotients (V.R.Q.) of pupils admitted to upper school in the academic year 1967–68

(All schools)

		Percentages of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known							Number of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known	Number of entrants
	Type of place	Less than 90	90 to 99	100 to 109	110 to 119	120 to 129	130 to 139	140+		
Day places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	1	1	6	24	38	24	6	4,653	9,594
	Governors' free places	—	2	5	13	28	34	18	68	129
	Residuary places	2	2	14	32	29	15	6	2,865	6,726
	All places	1	1	9	27	35	21	7	7,586	16,449
Boarding places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	1	3	6	34	39	12	5	95	235
	Governors' free places	—	—	14	19	19	29	19	21	75
	Residuary places	1	5	23	35	20	11	5	328	1,385
	All places	1	4	19	34	24	12	6	444	1,695
	Total for day and boarding pupils	1	2	9	27	34	20	7	8,050	18,144
	Theoretical national distribution*	25	25	25	16	6·5	2	0·5		

*I.Q. on a test with a standard deviation of 15

Table 10B

Distribution of I.Q. or V.R.Q. of pupils admitted to upper school in the academic year 1967–68

(Schools with large VIth forms)

		Percentages of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known							Number of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known	Number of entrants
	Type of place	Less than 90	90 to 99	100 to 109	110 to 119	120 to 129	130 to 139	140+		
Day places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	.	.	3	14	35	35	13	1,135	2,114
	Governors' free places	—	—	—	9	35	37	19	44	52
	Residuary places	—	2	11	31	31	16	9	1,195	2,577
	All places	.	—	5	22	35	27	11	2,374	4,743
Boarding places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	—	—	15	54	23	—	8	13	44
	Governors' free places	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
	Residuary places	—	2	9	31	38	16	4	45	159
	All places	—	2	10	36	34	12	5	58	205
	Total for day and boarding pupils	.	1	6	22	34	26	10	2,432	4,948
	Theoretical national distribution*	25	25	25	16	6·5	2	0·5		

*See note to Table 10A

Table 10C

Distribution of I.Q. or V.R.Q. of pupils admitted to upper school in the academic year 1967–68

(Roman Catholic schools)

	Type of place	Percentages of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known							Number of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known	Number of entrants
		Less than 90	90 to 99	100 to 109	110 to 119	120 to 129	130 to 139	140+		
Day places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	1	2	6	31	40	17	3	2,243	5,216
	Governors' free places	—	—	33	—	33	33	—	3	18
	Residuary places	1	4	29	37	23	5	1	296	1,099
	All places	1	2	9	31	38	16	3	2,542	6,333
Boarding places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	—	—	—	13	73	13	—	15	38
	Governors free places	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5
	Residuary places	—	—	55	27	18	—	—	11	84
	All places	—	—	23	19	50	8	—	26	127
	Total for day and boarding pupils	1	2	9	31	38	15	3	2,568	6,460
	Theoretical national distribution*	25	25	25	16	6·5	2	0·5		

*See note to Table 10A

Table 10D

Distribution of I.Q. or V.R.Q. of pupils admitted to upper school in the academic year 1967–68

(Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

		Percentages of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known							Number of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known	Number of entrants
	Type of place	Less than 90	90 to 99	100 to 109	110 to 119	120 to 129	130 to 139	140+		
Day places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	·	2	12	28	30	21	6	401	674
	Governors' free places	—	—	25	12	37	12	12	8	35
	Residuary places	2	1	14	36	30	11	5	210	543
	All places	1	2	13	31	30	18	6	619	1,252
Boarding places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	2	5	5	40	32	10	8	63	144
	Governors' free places	—	—	19	25	6	25	25	16	59
	Residuary places	1	5	24	36	19	8	5	238	1,049
	All places	1	5	20	36	21	9	7	317	1,252
	Total for day and boarding pupils	1	3	15	33	27	15	6	936	2,504
	Theoretical national distribution*	25	25	25	16	6.5	2	0.5		

*See note to Table 10A

Table 10E

Distribution of I.Q. or V.R.Q. of pupils admitted to upper school in the academic year 1967–68

(Boys' schools)

	Type of place	Percentages of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known							Number of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known	Number of entrants
		Less than 90	90 to 99	100 to 109	110 to 119	120 to 129	130 to 139	140+		
Day places	L.E.A. free and reserved places Governors' free places Residuary places	. . .	1 2 2	5 5 15	23 15 37	38 30 27	24 32 13	8 15 7	2,373 60 1,594	4,212 89 3,218
	All places	.	1	8	30	34	19	7	4,027	7,519
Boarding places	L.E.A. free and reserved places Governors free places Residuary places	1 — 1	4 — 5	5 15 22	40 20 34	32 20 21	11 25 11	7 20 5	75 20 291	141 50 1,042
	All places	1	5	19	34	23	12	6	386	1,233
	Total for day and boarding pupils	.	2	9	29	33	19	7	4,413	8,752
	Theoretical national distribution*	25	25	25	16	6·5	2	0·5		

*See note to Table 10A

Table 10F

Distribution of I.Q. or V.R.Q. of pupils admitted to upper school in the academic year 1967–68

(Girls' schools)

		Percentages of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known							Number of pupils for whom I.Q. or V.R.Q. is known	Number of entrants
	Type of place	Less than 90	90 to 99	100 to 109	110 to 119	120 to 129	130 to 139	140+		
Day places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	1	2	6	24	37	25	5	2,197	5,242
	Governors' free places	—	—	—	—	12	50	37	8	39
	Residuary places	4	2	13	29	32	16	5	1,251	3,415
	All places	2	2	8	26	35	21	5	3,456	8,696
Boarding places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	—	—	10	10	65	15	—	20	89
	Governors' free places	—	—	—	—	—	100	—	1	22
	Residuary places	—	—	33	43	16	8	—	37	311
	All places	—	—	24	31	33	12	—	58	422
	Total for day and boarding pupils	2	2	9	26	35	21	5	3,514	9,118
	Theoretical national distribution*	25	25	25	16	6·5	2	0·5		

*See note to Table 10A

11 *Grading as suitable for grammar school education*

Table 11A

Grading of pupils taking up governors' free places and residuary places in 1967–68 (all schools)

	Governors' free places		Residuary places	
	No. of pupils	%	No. of pupils	%
(1) Graded by L.E.A. as suitable for a grammar school education	72	37	2,335	31
(2) Graded as *not* suitable for a grammar school education	6	3	1,026	14
(3) Not graded	50	26	1,130	15
(4) Pupils for whom the answers to (1), (2) and (3) above are not known	68	35	3,048	40
(5) Total entering 1967–68	196	100	7,539	100

(6) Number of schools answering question	166	165

Table 11B

Grading of pupils taking up governors' free places and residuary places in 1967–68

(Schools with large VIth forms)

	Governors' free places		Residuary places	
	No. of pupils	%	No. of pupils	%
(1) Graded by L.E.A. as suitable for a grammar school education	15	36	1,037	40
(2) Graded as *not* suitable for a grammar school education	—	—	185	7
(3) Not graded	8	19	231	9
(4) Pupils for whom the answers to (1), (2) and (3) above are not known	19	45	1,116	43
(5) Total entering 1967–68	42	100	2,569	100

(6) Number of schools answering question	38	38

Table 11C

Grading of pupils taking up governors' free places and residuary places in 1967–68

(Roman Catholic schools)

	Governors' free places		Residuary places	
	No. of pupils	%	No. of pupils	%
(1) Graded by L.E.A. as suitable for a grammar school education	10	45	155	15
(2) Graded as *not* suitable for a grammar school education	1	5	356	35
(3) Not graded	4	18	188	18
(4) Pupils for whom the answers to (1), (2) and (3) above are not known	7	32	324	32
(5) Total entering 1967–68	22	100	1,023	100

(6) Number of schools answering question	50	50

Table 11D

Grading of pupils taking up governors' free places and residuary places in 1967–68

(Schools with over 25 per cent of pupils boarding)

	Governors' free places		Residuary places	
	No. of pupils	%	No. of pupils	%
(1) Graded by L.E.A. as suitable for a grammar school education	28	31	208	15
(2) Graded as *not* suitable for a grammar school education	—	—	184	14
(3) Not graded	23	26	210	15
(4) Pupils for whom the answers to (1), (2) and (3) above are not known	38	43	752	56
(5) Total entering 1967–68	89	100	1,354	100

(6) Number of schools answering question	27	26

Table 11E

Grading of pupils taking up governors' free places and residuary places in 1967–68

(Boys' schools)

	Governors' free places		Residuary places	
	No. of pupils	%	No. of pupils	%
(1) Graded by L.E.A. as suitable for a grammar school education	49	37	1,001	25
(2) Graded as *not* suitable for a grammar school education	4	3	487	12
(3) Not graded	26	20	638	16
(4) Pupils for whom the answers to (1), (2) and (3) above are not known	52	40	1,870	47
(5) Total entering 1967–68	131	100	3,996	100

(6) Number of schools answering question	76	75

Table 11F

Grading of pupils taking up governors' free places and residuary places in 1967–68

(Girls' schools)

	Governors' free places		Residuary places	
	No. of pupils	%	No. of pupils	%
(1) Graded by L.E.A. as suitable for a grammar school education	23	38	1,239	36
(2) Graded as *not* suitable for a grammar school education	1	2	519	15
(3) Not graded	21	34	482	14
(4) Pupils for whom the answers to (1), (2) and (3) above are not known	16	26	1,178	34
(5) Total entering 1967–68	61	100	3,418	100

(6) Number of schools answering question	88	88

12 Religious worship and instruction

Table 12A

Religious worship and instruction

	Day schools			Boarding schools	
Denomination	Boys	Girls	Mixed	Boys	Girls
Church of England	13	10	1	13	2
Roman Catholic	19	37	—	—	—
Methodist	—	—	—	6	1
Congregationalist	—	—	—	1	—
Interdenominational	3	3	—	—	—
Undenominational*	23	38	1	3	4
Total	58	88	2	23	7

* Includes all schools which did not give a denomination

Note: Denominational character was determined in the following way: first, if the school's instrument of foundation prescribed a denominational character, this denomination was taken; secondly, if it could not be determined in this way, the denomination was taken as that of the school's weekday services.

Table 12B

Religious worship and instruction
(Schools with large VIth forms)

Denomination	Boys	Girls
Church of England	6	4
Interdenominational	2	2
Undenominational	12	14
Total	20	20

Note: As explained previously, Roman Catholic schools have been excluded from the category of schools with large VIth forms.

13 *Excusal from religious worship and instruction*

Table 13A

Excusal from religious worship and/or instruction

	Sixth form pupils		All other upper school pupils	
Type of school	Number excused from worship	Number excused from religious instruction	Number excused from worship	Number excused from religious instruction
Roman Catholic boys' schools	8	10	21	27
Roman Catholic girls' schools	7	22	6	6
Other boys' schools	339	283	504	635
Other girls' schools	117	102	324	358
Mixed schools	—	54	5	15
Total	471	471	860	1,041

By far the largest number of those excused worship or religious instruction fell into one of three groups:

Roman Catholics in non-Roman Catholic schools
Non-Roman Catholics in Roman Catholic schools
Jews

Many of the Jews attended lessons on the Old Testament and there were many more children in each of the three categories than actually claimed exemption. A few schools had united services once or twice a week which all children attended, and a few had broadened the content of religious instruction for the same purpose. Separate services were often arranged where the numbers made it possible.

Small numbers of Hindus, Moslems, Christian Scientists, Jehovah's Witnesses and of Humanists were recorded as claiming exemption.

In a number of schools it was said that timetable difficulties meant that religious instruction was not available to some sixth former.s One school said that they could not provide it for 'O' and 'A' level candidates in the year before the examination.

In general the impression was that only a few children expressed a wish to be exempted from worship or religious instruction and that the schools went to considerable trouble to meet their wishes.

14(i), 14(ii) and 14(iii)

Comprehensive reorganisation

It proved impossible to tabulate the answers to these questions; most of the schools have not reached any agreement on the role the school should play in a scheme of comprehensive reorganisation, although the majority of local authorities were continuing to take up places and some were continuing negotiations. Of the 45 schools who said they had reached agreement 10 had agreed to take pupils on the same basis as before, a further 27 had agreed to change the age of their entrants or widen their ability range or both but the arrangements fell far short of a fully comprehensive intake. In a further three cases the schools said that agreement had been reached but the local authorities in their questionnaire said it had not and a scheme involving another school had not been approved by the Department of Education and Science.

One Roman Catholic school had already become an 11 to 18 all-through comprehensive school. One Church of England foundation proposed to establish an aided comprehensive secondary school on the same site with which it would closely co-operate to provide jointly a full range of courses, although it would itself retain a selective element. One school had agreed to co-operate with the local comprehensive school in sharing staff and facilities, and at the age of 16 the pupils have a choice of either going full-time to the grammar school or to another comprehensive school. Another was to take all Roman Catholic sixth form pupils in the area from 11-16 Catholic comprehensive schools.

Replying to question 14(iii) most of the heads thought that no particular form of reorganisation would be suitable for their school without modification to the buildings, equipment or site, or because the staff were not qualified to teach other than academic children. Some heads said that the suitability of the school would depend on which scheme was chosen for their area and a few qualified their preference by saying the local scheme was for a different type of reorganisation. A few schools had reached an agreement with their authority but implementation had been delayed pending Departmental approval of the proposed scheme.

14(iv) Comprehensive reorganisation, the personal views of heads

The following table represents the views of the heads themselves; it should not necessarily be assumed that their governing bodies or local authorities would agree with them. In order to make possible presentation in tabular form, we selected the topics most commonly raised in replies and recorded the heads' views for or against.

Where a head said he was willing to try more than one of the options we list below, he has been recorded as in favour of each option which he said was acceptable. On the other hand, because the question was open-ended, some head teachers no doubt have views on these options which they left unstated.

A head has only been recorded as being 'against' an option when he has specifically said so. Obviously, in addition, preference for one option may exclude or overlap others. Thus, those who wanted to retain some selection must be against their school being an all-through comprehensive school, and those who were prepared to become a sixth form college were willing to change their age range.

		Boys		Girls		Mixed		Total	
		For	Against	For	Against	For	Against	For	Against
Going comprehensive	As an 'all-through' school	3	4	4	1			7	5
	As an 'upper tier' school	13		6				19	
	As a 'lower tier' school	2		1				3	
Broadening ability range		18	1	26	1			44	2
Changing the age range		5		9				14	
Being a 'mushroom' school	With entry at 13 plus	7		8				15	
	With entry at 16 plus	17		20				37	
	Some other age of entry	4		6				10	
Being a sixth form college		4	6	2	1			6	7
Offering special courses	In scarce subjects	9		18				27	
	Sixth form courses	15		7				22	
Catering for the physically handicapped		2		7				9	
Willing to offer boarding places to local education authorities		17		6				23	
Remaining a single-sex school		4		16				20	
Going co-educational		6		2				8	
Remaining a small school		2		8				10	
Fulfilling a denominational need		2		2				4	
Allowing parents to choose a school other than comprehensive		5		3				8	
No change from the present system		10		8		1		19	
Willing to co-operate in an unspecified way		9		8				17	
Retaining selection		13		5				18	

It is not possible to present all the reservations and shades of opinion in a table of this kind. The following quotations may help to fill out the picture.

Going comprehensive

'All-through'

A four form-entry Roman Catholic girls' school

'We have a plan approved by the Local Education Authority and ecclesiastical commissioners for girls 11+ to 18 residing in the area south of the river to be admitted to our school—making seven-form entry. In addition, girls of 16+ in a comprehensive school north of river, opting for sixth form studies will be admitted here.'

'Upper tier'

A two form-entry boys' school

'If the local plan for Secondary Reorganisation were to recommend a two-tier system with the age of transfer postponed to 13 or even 14, then our participation would be made easier in one sense since new entrants would be committed at once to G.C.E. courses where our teaching strength lies.'

A three form-entry Roman Catholic boys' school

'The scheme in which our school is envisaged as a sort of senior partner in an eight form-entry comprehensive unit with a secondary modern school (a quarter of a mile away) as the junior element (12+—14+) is the best available in the present circumstances. Our school however, must retain its direct grant status if the interest on loan commitments and other liquidations is to be assured. No such scheme would be fully operative until the school leaving age has been raised.'

'Lower tier'

A four form-entry Roman Catholic boys' school

'Our great difficulty is lack of space for (a) classroom teaching and (b) for activities and projects. It seems that we could cope with 11—16 group with the facilities we have but an enlarged top part of the school with all the variety needed would cause great difficulties.'

Broadening ability range

A two form-entry girls' school

'We could (as has been proposed) accept free-place holders—probably at 12—from a wider band of ability than at present i.e. down to an I.Q. of about 100.'

(Where heads who wanted to broaden the ability range gave a lower limit, it was usually I.Q. 100 or 105.)

Changing the age range

A three form-entry Roman Catholic boys' school

'It would be possible to co-operate with the comprehensive movement by widening the ability range and changing the entry to 13, making a 5-stream school.'

Being a 'mushroom' school

A three form-entry girls' school

'Were the local policy to be 11—16 schools followed by sixth form colleges I would be prepared to accept a Mexborough-type sixth form—but not to become a rootless sixth form college, about which I and my staff have the gravest doubts.'

Being a sixth form college

A three form-entry Roman Catholic girls' school

'After five years of discussions with Heads of other Roman Catholic schools, the diocesan authorities and the local education authorities there seems a majority opinion that the school could best serve as a sixth form college for the comprehensive group.'

Offering special courses

A four form-entry boys' school

'We can offer courses at sixth form level in subjects which may lack facilities in other schools—e.g. Greek, Russian, Music, Arabic.'

Catering for the physically handicapped

A three form-entry girls' school

'We have a number of pupils who are asthmatic, have had rheumatic fever or spinal operations and are given a special timetable to compensate. Our buildings are not ideal, but lessons are timetabled to give these girls the minimum of physical effort. Therefore to some extent we can cater for the pupil who could be submerged in a larger unit or who is handicapped in the ways we have mentioned.'

Offering boarding places

A two form-entry boys' school

'The school could take a substantially larger number of boys in need of boarding education, who fitted reasonably into the curriculum of the school. This is a job the school has done for many years for county boarders, and is one of the most valuable services we render.'

Remaining a small school

A two form-entry girls' school

'If comprehensive reorganisation is to include among its principles the right of parental choice, recognition needs to be given to the continued preference of parents who still wish for a small school for their daughters.'

(Many heads linked small size and single sex as two characteristics of their school which they were anxious to preserve.)

Parental choice

A three form-entry girls' school

'This school is too small to be a comprehensive. Its buildings and staff are not suitable. We see ourselves as the alternative, offering to parents another choice.'

No change from the present system

A five form-entry boys' school

'My personal belief is that, for the forseeable future, bearing in mind the shortages of buildings, money and specialist teachers which are inevitable in the educational system, the school can best serve national and regional needs and the interest of individual boys by retaining its present role as a selective school fulfilling a special purpose.'

Retaining selection

A two form-entry boys' school

'There is much to be said for one small selective school in an area where most of the children are of fairly high ability, since the number selected would not be sufficient to cream the comprehensive schools.'

A two form-entry girls' school

'This school is obviously too small to admit pupils in the full ability range and could not, therefore, without some special arrangement for "guided choice" or similar scheme, participate in a scheme for all-through comprehensives.

However, it is preferable that Free Place pupils enter as early as may be and I would welcome the opportunity to take children at 13 (in a reorganised scheme) who were considered able to profit from an academic course.'

15(a) Freedom of staff compared with maintained schools

The heads of direct grant schools believe they have greater freedom than the staffs of maintained schools although some conceded that with a few exceptional authorities they might enjoy almost as much freedom. Some also mentioned that their greater freedom placed greater responsibility on them.

Particular aspects of their greater freedom which were frequently mentioned by heads are:

(a) the appointment of all staff;
(b) the freedom to give special allowances to exceptional staff;
(c) control of the school curriculum and the freedom to initiate educational experiments;
(d) controlling the admission of pupils;
(e) arranging the school calendar and timetable to suit their particular school;
(f) being able to order any equipment wanted without bureaucratic delays or restrictions of choice;
(g) controlling expenditure within an overall budget which has the added advantage of enforcing the need for economy in expenditure;
(h) it was easier to take leave of absence oneself or grant it to the staff to go on courses, or on compassionate grounds etc.

Some heads considered there was an advantage in controlling all the school staff, domestic as well as academic.

The staff in direct grant schools were thought to be more involved in their work both in and out of school.

The following quotations illustrate the main points made.

A four form-entry boys' school

'The answer is unhesitatingly and unequivocally, yes.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Greater freedom is allowed both Headmaster and staff, in particular from control of non-teaching people—administrative and political. The Headmaster has full powers of responsible decision in choosing his staff, fixing hours, planning the studies, games and control of the buildings, subject to final control by the Governors.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The members of the teaching staff have a great deal of freedom; much more than in some maintained schools, but no more than in many schools run by enlightened authorities.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Freedom from local administrative control and local political control.'

A three form-entry boys' school

' . . . I have no doubt that the Headmaster and teaching staff of a direct grant school have much greater freedom, particularly in the following respects:

(a) appointment, remuneration, and dismissal of staff
(b) admission of pupils
(c) financial control and budgeting
(d) organisation and administration of the school
(e) freedom from the pressures of local politics and personalities.'

A two form-entry girls' school

'(a) The Head appoints not only the teaching staff but also the administrative and all other staff. This helps to create and maintain a balanced staff of people particularly interested in the welfare of the school and working for its common good.

(b) The entire financial administration is done within the school. In planning expenditure only the needs of the school are considered and no other influences are involved. The Head has greater freedom in planning the curriculum and the school can adapt itself more quickly and easily to the special needs of the pupils. The staff are free to experiment in matters of curriculum and the necessary financial support can be arranged.

(c) There can be greater flexibility in the giving of responsibility. This increases the participation of the staff in the school and creates a successful team.

(d) The Head negotiates directly with the Department of Education and Science and local education authorities. This gives a wide partnership with educational bodies and an exchange of opinions which is valuable in running the school.'

A three form-entry girls' school

'There is no need for the Head to obtain external permission to give staff time off for courses, weddings, funerals, sickness of relations, etc.'

A two form-entry girls' school

'I enjoy the freedom of allocating the money available to projects I consider urgent, subject of course to the approval of the Governors. I may make immediate purchase of any item costing less than £50 and this must save endless frustration.'

A two form-entry girls' school

'They (direct grant school Heads) generally have complete control over the appointment of staff, from framing the wording of the advertisement to short-listing and appointment. There need be no endless delay and consequent loss of a good candidate.'

15(*b*) *Freedom of staff compared with independent schools*

In answering this question, some heads drew attention to the obvious restrictions on the freedom of direct grant schools—the need to get permission to raise fees and erect buildings, the regulations with regard to the admission of pupils. They felt that because of these the direct grant schools had less freedom than an independent school.

Others thought that the restrictions were amply compensated for by the fact that the direct grant school head could select his pupils without regard to parental income.

It was sometimes said that independent schools were able to pay their staff more, sometimes that direct grant school staff had greater security.

The following quotations illustrate the main points made.

A three form-entry boys' school

'. . . a stranger . . . would not have been able to tell . . . that this was not an independent school. . . . I think my colleagues enjoy precisely the same freedom as . . . in independent schools.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'No difference is apparent to the Headmaster and staff of our school.'

A three form-entry boys' school

'Slightly less freedom for there are some financial restrictions. . . . Independent schools can recruit men of still higher calibre by paying more. . . .'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Direct grant schools give much the best value for money to State and private fee-payer. More schools should be run on direct grant systems!'

A three form-entry boys' school

'If a direct grant school is not running well it is likely that the Department of Education and Science and/or the Governors might be quicker to apprehend the situation than in an independent school, where there may be much more freedom in financial matters.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'Consequently the head and staff have freedom of action comparable with those schools more commonly referred to as "independent". But they have in addition a practical freedom denied to independent schools which depend entirely on parents rich enough to pay full fees— they are able to offer places to boys whose parents could not afford full fees and so widen their intake to every group in society.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Our position is very similar to that of these schools; but I would suppose that they have, in general, more resources and smaller teaching groups.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The direct grant schools, often with little or no endowment and with fees controlled by the Department, have little margin in this respect (i.e. financial) and sometimes staff feel frustrated, seeing in independent schools facilities which we cannot afford.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'In so far as the Direct Grant Regulations stipulate conditions of admission—which are unquestionably acceptable to governors, staff and Headmaster—the latter have greater freedom in resisting pressures from Old Boys and others.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Independent schools must sometimes tend to look more to parental wishes, e.g. in tradition; in public "image"; in social values etc. This can restrict the freedom of their staff to act on their best judgment and compromise with their ideals.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The heads of some direct grant schools . . . exercise no control over the selection of their local education authority pupils. . . .'

A three form-entry girls' school

'Some independent schools are very stable and secure and in that case their freedom may exceed that of the Direct Grant schools; but in general they are subject to the pressures of a buyer's market where girls' schools are especially vulnerable. They have to please the consumer (both parent and child) at all costs. We are on the whole in a seller's market and so we can pursue, within reason, whatever policy we think is academically and socially right.'

16. The effect of fee-paying

Many heads made the point that neither staff nor pupils knew who paid fees and who did not, but almost all of them thought that fee-paying was beneficial. Some of the reasons given were:

(1) Parents who paid fees tended to take a greater interest in the school and their child's progress.

(2) Parents tend to value what they pay for.

(3) A few suggested that fee-payers tend to work harder out of a sense of gratitude to their parents.

(4) It was good for a school to have an independent source of revenue.

(5) Provided that the remission scale was kept realistic (some thought it had slipped too low recently) fee-paying did not exclude anyone capable of profiting from the school.

(6) The presence of fee-payers ensured a full social mix.

It was also remarked that parents sometimes made considerable sacrifices to send the children as fee-payers and that fee-payers need be no better off than free place holders.

The following quotations illustrate some of the points made.

A four form-entry boys' school

'. . . the genuine freedom offered to parents to choose a particular school. . . . Payment of fees represents a considerable saving to public funds.'

A three form-entry boys' school

'Rightly or wrongly, the Headmaster himself feels a greater obligation to fee-paying parents and doesn't allow them to be failures and, with parental co-operation this seems to succeed. The lack of co-operation of free-place parents is where the high degree of academic failure occurs.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Less able boys often have an added sense of purpose, which may prove very beneficial in helping them to overcome difficulties. Further, many wealthy parents benefit at present from free places. The money at present spent on free places might more usefully be devoted to a more realistic fee scale for all pupils on the lines of the award for higher education.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'There is no sign whatever of any sense of "distaste" for "graded fees" such as used to be attributed to the "means test"—rather there is gratitude for the possibility of sending the boy to the school and enabling him to benefit from the opportunities it offers despite limited income.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'Here in Yorkshire they only pay for what they value, and after demonstrating their interest not only in words but in cash, they watch their investments carefully.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The parents themselves (as well as their children) are engaged in a "social mixing" in social activities, and particularly in their Parents' Association.'

A three form-entry Roman Catholic boys' school

'Often the fee-paying child has other qualities that give a tone to a school and in most cases these qualities can be preserved, enhanced and developed at a direct grant school where cultural subjects are fostered.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'It means that the school authorities also feel a much greater responsibility to those parents (i.e. fee-payers) than would otherwise be the case, simply because they are directly concerned.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The school is given a greater sense of responsibility to *all* parents.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'Most of them appreciate what they are paying for and most of the parents who do not pay fees appreciate the value of the free places awarded to their sons. Every student in the school is treated according to his merits irrespective of his financial status.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The result is that the boys may be conscripts but the parents are all volunteers.'

A two form-entry girls' school

On the whole neither pupils nor staff, nor indeed I myself, know who pays full fees or who has a free place, without consulting a record card. I could hardly discover, even if I wished to, which parents pay graded fees, since this is dealt with by the Central office of the Girls' Public Day School Trust I have never had occasion to consult the office about this. The answer to the question must therefore, I suppose, be "no effect".'

A two form-entry Roman Catholic girls' school

'Parents who pay either full or graded fees value what they have to pay for and encourage their children to make the best use of what they are receiving'.

A two form-entry girls' school

'If we are "privileged", it seems to me that it is in having such wholehearted co-operation from parents, which helps us to make our work very much more fruitful than it might otherwise be. I do not think that the payment of fees is wholly irrelevant to this.'

A four form-entry Roman Catholic girls' school

'The effect is good. The fact that the fees are graded allows some pupils to come who would not otherwise be able to do so. Children from better-class homes who may be slow to develop academically can come on payment of fees.'

17 *Advantages and disadvantages compared with maintained and independent schools*

Compared with independent and maintained schools, the direct grant schools are thought by heads to benefit by not being neighbourhood schools, but at the same time they value the involvement they have in the local community while being free from local political pressures. This local contact is said to be particularly valuable for the direct grant boarding schools.

Because of the grant they receive, the direct grant schools have greater financial security than the independent schools but they have more financial worries than the maintained schools. In particular it is said that the direct grant schools have difficulty in getting an economic fee agreed when necessary. There are also difficulties in financing capital expenditure.

Other advantages of the direct grant schools are said to be better staff, smaller classes and academic sixth forms.

17(*a*) *Quotations illustrating the advantages and disadvantages compared with maintained schools*

A two form-entry boys' school

'In general the links with the Old Boys of the school are much stronger. Very generous individual and collective gifts have been made to the school by the Old Boys.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The fact that all boys are here by the parents' choice and that they can if necessary be asked to leave.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'. . . the possession of a junior school makes it possible to provide a continuous education from the age of 8 to 19, which is undoubtedly seen as an advantage by many parents, not least in the case of boarders. It is possible to give continuous pastoral care to a boy of difficult temperament or with special home problems, of whom we always have a number.'

A three form-entry boys' school

'To guarantee a VIth form of our academic quality in a comprehensive school, would mean a school of many thousands.'

A four form-entry boys' school

' "Good staff"—that is men of not only high professional ability but also of independence of judgement, strong character, initiative and resourcefulness, who are ready and willing to play an active part in school life as a whole and not just work routine hours in the class-room—the sort of people, in fact, whom young people *need* to meet regularly if they are to be "educated" in the full sense of the word—are attracted to and held by schools which offer conditions in which they feel free to give of their best. This is a much more important factor in the ability of direct grant schools to attract high calibre staff than the salaries they are sometimes alleged to pay.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'They (the headmaster and staff) know well that unless they justify the expenditure and sacrifice that is made to keep a boy at their school, any consequent withdrawal of support will affect not merely their reputation but their survival as a going concern.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'The disadvantage is the shortage of money for buildings and equipment.'

A three form-entry boys' school

'The fact that direct grant schools can choose their pupils is in one sense an unfair advantage that they have over the maintained sector. Obviously every school cannot choose its pupils or be chosen by its parents. Nevertheless the fact that every school cannot have this freedom is certainly no sufficient reason to deny it to all. It should be extended as far as possible within the maintained sector.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Elimination of long lines of communication through unimaginative, uninvolved clerical staff with no classroom/teachers/pupil experience to remote headquarters. "With malice towards none" I testify to the tradition of *service* embodied in the Whitehall or Regional Office employee, who is a Civil *Servant*, whatever his/her grade. The local education authority official is a Local Government *Officer*, who too often conceives his function as giving *orders* to the front line teachers. The former, especially the H.M. Inspector, takes the role as a partner, albeit Senior partner; the latter seldom doffs the mask of condescension.'

A four form-entry boys' school

'As they have to live within their income, they tend to be more thrifty in order to get the best value for their expenditure; in most cases they are more economical than comparable local education authority schools with sixth forms of a similar size.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'It may be, too, that their measure of autonomy renders them immune from, or at any rate less vulnerable to, doctrinaire pressures arising from political of ideological transience.'

A three form-entry boys' school

'The absence of capital grants from the State at first sight seems unfair to direct grant schools, which save the country and local education authority so much money; but this absence does make direct grant schools watch their expenses very closely. Not only are buildings and other expenses watched more closely, but there is a fair amount of do-it-yourself which breeds a sturdy independence vital to the country when such qualities are being sapped by so many things being offered as of right without deserving effort.'

A two form-entry girls' school

'The most obvious advantage is that of an independent body of governors whose members have a wide knowledge of education and a genuine interest in it, and through whom the school is linked with the wider community. The governing body, being attached to one particular school and not a committee responsible for a whole district, is able to take a direct personal interest in the welfare of the school. Such a body is stable and not liable to suffer a radical change of composition or even to disappear as the result of a local election.'

A three form-entry girls' school

Disadvantage—'We have to spend much energy raising money for building extensions, etc.'

A three form-entry girls' school

'Value of lower school.

(a) Opportunity for continuity of education throughout school career.

(b) Encouragement of family atmosphere. Older girls learn the tolerance, consideration and responsibility towards younger children which they will soon have to practise as mothers. This helps to combat the present tendency for teenagers to be isolated in a self-contained culture and to feel little responsibility towards those older or younger than themselves.'

A two form-entry girls' school

'Greater freedom in working conditions and responsibility for planning curriculum and activities bring out the best qualities in staff and attract teachers of high academic calibre.'

A two form-entry Roman Catholic girls' school

'1. We have a very wide catchment area and have a very good mixture of city and country pupils.

2. The pupils, coming as they do from all parts of the city, suburbs, and six counties, comprise a complete social mix.'

17(b)

Quotations illustrating the advantages and disadvantages compared with independent schools.

A three form-entry boys' school

'I am convinced that the more one pays for education, the better value one gets. The financing of capital development is the one really big disadvantage of the direct grant school when compared with any other type.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The principal advantage is clearly that of social mix. While in this area there is a lack of manual workers, many of our boys do come from modest homes and have benefited from the opportunities, both academic and social, of the School. . . . I should like to see these opportunities more widely available, especially to the middle range of ability (I.Q. 110-129).

Secondly, we enjoy close and friendly relations with maintained schools. There is no difficulty about a boy's transfer to us at any stage of his career, when, for example, there is a need for boarding or the study of a subject not available at his previous school.

Thirdly, many of the staff have been educated or have taught in maintained schools. Many will move to these at a later stage in their careers.

Fourthly, schools of this type give excellent opportunities for young teachers to learn their trade in easy teaching conditions and in a school where they can see the whole perspective of its life and working.

Our schools have not usually the large endowments of the big independents, and may be in danger of being placed in an awkward position if a local education authority suddenly decides not to take up places.'

A three form-entry boys' school

'The direct grant school has the following advantages over the independent schools *in this area:*

(a) The fees are lower.
(b) The staff are better qualified.
(c) The academic results are better.
(d) The links with the local education authority and Inspectorate give us the opportunity to benefit from their advice (always freely given) in all questions of curriculum reform and new buildings.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'The lower fees certainly bring a wider cross-section, and the school is less isolated from the full life of the neighbourhood. Close relationship with home is real.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'Independent fee-payers can be inordinately ambitious and inclined to call the tune. The synthesis of graded fees, direct grant and local education authority partnership creates a better balance of payment and appreciation of educational value.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'We do not have to exclude pupils whose parents cannot pay fees and we never admit solely in virtue of the parental purse.'

A two form-entry boys' school

'I think there are few advantages which the direct grant school has over the best independent school. But all independent schools are not equally good, and some in academic standards and social range are inferior to nearly all direct grant schools. Some independent schools are not free from snobbery of wealth or birth—the social mix in a direct grant school effectively prevents snobbery. Some independent schools give the impression of being rather isolated, both geographically and in spirit. The direct grant school with its strong local links and substantial proportion of pupils from local primary schools has its feet firmly on the ground.

There is no doubt at all that if anything happened to affect the principle of direct grant and to make it impossible for schools to continue to enjoy direct grant status the big majority would choose to go independent—with very real regret.'

A three form-entry boys' school

'The only disadvantages I know concern school finances. Here the control by the Department of Education and Science precludes us from building up any reserves, so that our scope is limited in even minor capital work.'

A three form-entry Roman Catholic girls' school

'We can arrange for the staff to be included in the local education authority superannuation scheme—which independent schools cannot do.'

A two form-entry girls' school

'Direct grant schools may seem at a disadvantage in that they cannot put up fees without the consent of the Department of Education and Science, their staffing ratio is subject to control, they are required to keep registers and fill certain forms for the Department of Education and Science and also are required to have some representatives from the local education authorities on their governing bodies and take 25 per cent free places.

I still think however that they have a considerable advantage over independent schools in the following ways:

(a) the security afforded by the grant;

(b) the knowledge that no child who can profit intellectually from the course provided need be excluded on grounds of finance;

(c) the fact that there is a wide social range in most of these schools which enriches them and makes them a good cross-section of society;

(d) there is no need to take an undue proportion of children who are difficult or unwilling to learn, simply to keep the numbers up;

(e) the schools feel themselves linked with the maintained system through their relationship with the local education authorities and do not stand outside it in the same way as the independent schools do. Direct grant schools often have very friendly and pleasant relationships with the various primary schools from which they draw many of their pupils.'

SECTION 3

THE SURVEY OF LEAVERS FROM DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS 1967–1968

(i) *Copy of the form and explanatory notes*

PUBLIC SCHOOLS COMMISSION

SCHOOL LEAVERS 1st September 1967—31st August, 1968

*RESIDUARY PLACE HOLDERS
*GOVERNORS FREE PLACE HOLDERS
*L.E.A. FREE PLACE HOLDERS
*L.E.A. RESERVED PLACE HOLDERS

*Delete as applicable

Name of School..

Pupil 1	Sex 2	Day or Boarding 3	Leaving age in years 4	Has pupil sat 'O' level 5	No. of 'O' level passes 6	Has pupil sat 'A' level 7
1	B G	D B		Yes No		Yes No

No. of 'A' level passes 8	Destination after leaving school 9	Occupation of father or guardian 10	Income of parents 11

Notes for Completing Questionnaire on School Leavers

Each of the notes below refers respectively to one column on the answer sheet headed 'School Leavers 1st September, 1967 to 31st August, 1968.' The notes are numbered so as to correspond with the numbering of the columns on the answer sheet to which each refers. It is intended that the form should be completed as far as possible from the school records. Schools are not expected to write to the individual leavers or their parents if the details are not available in the School.

1. Names not required by Commission. Do *not* include pupils who transferred to other schools, who emigrated or who died.
2. Ring (B) if the pupil is a boy and (G) if a girl.
3. Ring (D) if the pupil is a day-pupil and (B) if the pupil is a boarder.
4. Age when pupil left school in completed years.
5. Has pupil taken any subject at 'O' level? Ring 'Yes' or 'No'.
6. Give the total number of different 'O' level subjects passed. Include Grade 1 results in C.S.E. and 'O' level passes awarded on 'A' level papers. Where a pupil has passed a particular subject more than once treat as a single pass.
7. Has pupil taken any subject at 'A' level? Ring 'Yes' or 'No'.
8. Give the total number of 'A' level subjects passed. If a leaver has passes at 'A' level in more than two mathematical subjects (e.g. 'pure mathematics', 'applied mathematics' and the single subject 'pure and applied mathematics') or in all three biological subjects (namely biology, botany and zoology) he should be treated as having passed in only two subjects.
9. Indicate destination on leaving.

(i) *Further full-time education* (starting before November 1969)

For leavers going on to further full-time education before November 1969 use the following code (which is the same as used on Form 7a Schools by the Department of Education and Science). For example for a pupil going on to Oxford University enter 1.

(a) University (includes former C.A.Ts.)

Oxford	1
Cambridge	2
London	3
Other English university	4
Welsh university	5
Scottish university	6
Northern Ireland university	7
University outside the United Kingdom	8
Unknown university	9

(b) College of Education—(teacher training college)	10
(c) Other full-time or sandwich course at a Further Education Establishment	11

(ii) *Employment or apprenticeship* (and no further full-time education envisaged before November 1969)
Specify the nature of the employment or apprenticeship.

(iii) *Other destination or not known*
If destination other than that listed above, specify.
If destination not known write 'N.K.'.

10. Give as full and precise details of the occupation of the father (or guardian) as is possible from the school records. It is not intended that schools should have to consult parents to complete this column. If the information is not known please write 'N.K.'.

11. (Residuary place holders only). Enter the income of the parents as calculated for the purpose of remission of fees in pounds. If the income is not known enter 'N.K.'.

(ii) *Results of the survey*

Notes:

1. Some local education authorities make a practice of paying fees for the sixth form for former residuary place holders who gain a specified number of 'O' levels in the General Certificate of Education. Pupils who leave school as free or reserved place holders but have spent the greater part of their time in the school as residuary place holders are given as a separate category.
2. In the tables about destination after leaving school, the pupils entering temporary employment pending entry to full-time further education have been included in the appropriate category of further education.
3. The information supplied by the schools on the occupation of fathers was, in some cases, ambiguous and classification in those cases was necessarily arbitrary. In view of this, figures on the social background of pupils should be treated with a certain amount of caution.

1. *Type of place held by school leavers*

Percentages

Type of place	Boarding pupils			Day pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Residuary place holders	70·3	61·3	68·3	31·2	30·8	31·0
Free or reserved places previously residuary places	0·6	1·8	0·9	3·6	3·4	3·5
L.E.A. free and reserved places	20·6	31·4	23·0	63·7	65·0	64·4
Governors' free places	8·5	5·5	7·9	1·5	0·7	1·0
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Number of places	985	274	1,259	6,389	6,905	13,294

2. *Type of place held by school leavers related to categories of schools*

Percentages

Type of place	Schools with large VIth forms		Roman Catholic schools	Schools with over 25% boarders
	Boys	Girls		
Residuary places	38·9	40·4	13·0	54·1
Free or reserved places previously residuary places	6·1	4·3	2·1	1·0
L.E.A. free and reserved places	53·8	54·6	84·6	38·1
Governors' free places	1·2	0·7	0·3	6·8
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Number of leavers	2,384	1,796	5,024	1,934

3. *Leaving age of all pupils*

Percentages

Age on leaving	Boarding pupils			Day pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
15	1·4	2·2	1·6	2·0	2·7	2·3
16	11·5	12·8	11·8	13·3	19·2	16·4
17	25·3	21·5	24·5	23·6	18·3	20·9
18	49·6	56·6	51·2	50·1	56·5	53·4
19 and over	12·1	6·9	11·0	11·0	3·4	7·0
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Leaving age stated	983	274	1,257	6,386	6,903	13,289
Number of leavers	985	274	1,259	6,389	6,905	13,294

4. *Leaving age of school leavers related to categories of schools*

Percentages

Age on leaving	Schools with large VIth forms		Roman Catholic schools	Schools with over 25% boarders
	Boys	Girls		
15	1·1	1·3	3·9	2·0
16	10·7	11·9	24·3	12·0
17	28·2	18·1	18·1	25·7
18	52·1	65·9	45·6	51·1
19 and over	7·9	2·8	8·1	9·3
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Leaving age stated	2,383	1,796	5,022	1,931
Number of leavers	2,384	1,796	5,024	1,934

5. *Leaving age related to type of place held*

Percentages

Age on leaving	Residuary places	Free or reserved places previously residuary places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places
15	2·3	0·4	2·4	1·2
16	17·0	1·5	16·3	11·9
17	23·7	17·5	19·9	21·8
18	49·8	68·1	54·2	58·4
19 and over	7·2	12·5	7·2	6·6
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Leaving age stated	4,978	480	8,845	243
Number of leavers	4,983	480	8,847	243

6. *Leaving age related to social class of father*

Percentages

Age on leaving	I and II Professional and managerial	III (a) Non-manual	III (b) Manual	IV & V Semi- and unskilled	Armed forces	Not known or father deceased or incapacitated
15	1·6	1·8	3·2	5·3	2·2	2·8
16	11·2	14·6	24·2	30·1	11·0	19·7
17	22·6	18·9	19·6	17·9	25·7	20·0
18	56·8	57·4	46·9	41·4	50·8	49·4
19 and over	7·8	7·1	6·1	5·2	10·2	8·1
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Leaving age stated	7,578	1,626	2,552	954	362	1,474
Number of leavers	7,581	1,628	2,552	955	362	1,475

7. *Educational level of school leavers*

Percentages

Educational level	Boarding pupils			Day pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Did not attempt 'O' level	1·5	3·6	2·0	1·8	2·0	1·9
Attempted 'O' level but not 'A' level	28·6	29·6	28·8	23·0	31·7	27·5
Attempted 'A' level	69·9	66·8	69·2	75·2	66·3	70·6
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Number of leavers	991	280	1,271	6,404	6,914	13,318

8. *'O' level achievements of school leavers including those who also attempted 'A' level*

Percentages

'O' level	Boarding pupils			Day pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
No subject attempted	1·5	3·7	2·0	1·8	2·0	1·9
All subjects failed	2·2	—	1·8	1·4	1·5	1·5
1–3 passes	11·2	7·7	10·4	10·6	12·0	11·3
4–7 passes	46·2	44·3	45·8	54·3	46·3	50·2
8 or more	38·8	44·3	40·0	31·9	38·2	35·1
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Number of leavers for whom results known	982	273	1,255	6,364	6,867	13,231
Total number of leavers	985	274	1,259	6,389	6,905	13,294

9. *'O' level achievements of school leavers excluding those pupils who also attempted 'A' level*

Percentages

'O' level	Boarding pupils			Day pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
No subject attempted	4·1	7·9	5·0	6·9	5·4	6·0
All subjects failed	6·8	—	5·2	5·4	4·6	4·9
1–3 passes	34·4	19·1	30·8	40·1	33·5	36·2
4–7 passes	50·7	53·9	51·4	43·7	47·4	45·9
8 or more	4·1	19·1	7·6	3·9	9·2	7·0
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Number of leavers for whom results known	294	89	383	1,569	2,312	3,881
Total number of leavers	295	90	385	1,582	2,320	3,902

10. *'A' level achievements of school leavers*

Percentages

'A' level	Boarding pupils			Day pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
No subject attempted	29·6	31·8	30·1	24·6	33·6	29·3
All subjects failed	6·2	9·2	6·8	4·5	5·5	5·0
1 pass	9·9	13·1	10·6	7·1	10·3	8·7
2 passes	14·6	17·5	15·3	14·0	15·9	15·0
3 passes	32·6	24·1	30·7	35·8	27·7	31·6
4 or more	7·0	4·4	6·4	14·0	7·1	10·4
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Number of leavers	985	274	1,259	6,389	6,905	13,294

11. *'O' level achievements by age of leaving*

Percentages

Number of 'O' level passes	Boys	Girls	Total
(a) *Leavers aged* 15 *attempting 'O' level* None	11·4	9·9	10·5
1–3	47·1	32·7	38·6
4–5	18·6	19·8	19·3
6–7	21·4	22·8	22·2
8 or more	1·4	14·9	9·4
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
'O' level attempted and result known	70	101	171
'O' level attempted	71	103	174
Number of leavers aged 15	139	**192**	**331**

11. *'O' level achievements by age of leaving* (continued)

Percentages

Number of 'O' level passes	Boys	Girls	Total
(b) *Leavers aged* 16 *attempting 'O' level*			
None	7·9	5·5	6·5
1–3	49·1	42·8	45·4
4–5	26·7	24·8	25·5
6–7	12·1	18·5	15·9
8 or more	4·2	8·4	6·6
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
'O' level attempted and result known	914	1,317	2,231
'O' level attempted	925	1,326	2,251
Number of leavers aged 16	965	1,360	2,325
(c) *Leavers aged* 17 *attempting 'O' level*			
None	1·4	1·7	1·5
1–3	12·3	13·9	13·0
4–5	25·3	20·0	23·0
6–7	30·0	33·3	31·4
8 or more	30·9	31·1	31·0
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
'O' level attempted and result known	1,745	1,308	3,053
'O' level attempted	1,747	1,315	3,062
Number of leavers aged 17	1,759	1,320	3,079
(d) *Leavers aged* 18 *and over attempting 'O' level*			
None	0·1	—	0·1
1–3	2·0	1·5	1·7
4–5	16·5	11·6	14·1
6–7	40·6	35·1	37·9
8 or more	40·8	51·8	46·2
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
'O' level attempted and result known	4,483	4,268	8,751
'O' level attempted	4,497	4,289	8,786
Number of leavers aged 18 and over	4,506	4,305	8,811

12. *'A' level achievements by age of leaving*

Percentages

Number of 'A' level passes	Boys	Girls	Total
(a) *Leavers aged* 17 *and under attempting 'A' level*			
None	4·5	8·8	6·0
1	8·2	16·3	11·1
2	15·4	21·8	17·6
3	54·3	42·9	50·3
4 or more	17·6	10·2	15·0
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
'A' level attempted	1,155	625	1,780
Number of leavers aged 17 and under	2,863	2,872	5,735
(b) *Leavers aged* 18 *attempting 'A' level*			
None	6·7	8·2	7·5
1	9·6	15·3	12·6
2	19·0	24·5	21·9
3	46·9	41·6	44·2
4 or more	17·8	10·4	13·9
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
'A' level attempted	3,541	3,901	7,442
Number of leavers aged 18	3,685	4,054	7,739
(c) *Leavers aged* 19 *and over attempting 'A' level*			
None	7·4	13·0	8·7
1	14·2	19·2	15·4
2	23·2	21·2	22·7
3	39·5	34·3	38·3
4 or more	15·7	12·2	14·9
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
'A' level attempted	810	245	1,055
Number of leavers aged 19 and over	821	251	1,072

13. *'O' level and 'A' level achievements related to type of place held*

Percentages

Examination achievements	Residuary places	Free or reserved places previously residuary places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places
'O' level No subject attempted	2·2	—	1·8	2·5
All subjects failed	2·2	—	1·2	0·4
1–3 passes	13·5	2·3	10·6	7·8
4–7 passes	49·1	69·1	49·6	35·4
8 or more	33·0	28·6	36·8	53·9
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Number of leavers for whom results known	4,955	479	8,809	243
Total number of leavers	4,983	480	8,847	243
'A' level No subject attempted	35·3	8·3	27·4	20·2
All subjects failed	5·3	9·4	4·9	5·7
1 pass	9·0	14·0	8·7	4·9
2 passes	14·2	18·5	15·3	13·6
3 passes	30·1	35·8	31·8	41·6
4 or more	6·1	14·0	11·9	14·0
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Number of leavers	4,983	480	8,847	243

14. *'O' level and 'A' level achievements related to social class of father*

Percentages

Examination achievements	I and II Professional and managerial	III (a) Other non-manual	III (b) skilled manual	IV and V Semi- and unskilled	Armed forces	Not known or father deceased or incapacitated
'O' level						
No subject attempted	1·3	1·5	2·7	4·4	1·4	2·4
All subjects failed	1·1	1·4	2·6	2·0	1·4	1·6
1–3 passes	7·7	10·5	16·4	20·5	10·0	15·7
4–7 passes	49·5	51·7	49·8	49·3	45·8	50·4
8 or more	40·4	34·9	28·6	23·8	41·4	29·9
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Number of leavers for whom results known	7,553	1,620	2,538	950	360	1,465
Total number of leavers	7,581	1,628	2,552	955	362	1,475
'A' level						
No subject attempted	23·6	26·5	38·4	46·5	26·2	36·3
All subjects failed	4·6	5·5	5·4	4·8	7·0	7·3
1 pass	8·3	10·5	8·5	9·3	12·2	9·8
2 passes	15·4	15·7	13·4	11·0	18·5	16·7
3 passes	37·0	32·7	24·7	20·8	33·1	20·3
4 or more	11·1	9·2	9·5	7·5	3·0	9·6
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Number of leavers	7,581	1,628	2,552	955	362	1,475

15. *'O' level achievements of school leavers related to categories of schools*

Percentages

'O' level	Schools with large VIth forms		Roman Catholic schools	Schools with over 25% boarders
	Boys	Girls		
No subjects attempted	0·8	1·0	3·4	1·3
All subjects failed	1·0	0·2	2·8	1·6
1–3 passes	8·1	5·3	18·5	9·4
4–7 passes	61·5	48·6	49·5	43·4
8 or more	28·6	44·8	25·9	44·3
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Number of leavers for whom results known	2,384	1,789	4,973	1,929
Total number of leavers	2,384	1,796	5,024	1,934

16. *'A' level achievements of school leavers related to categories of schools*

Percentages

'A' level	Schools with large VIth forms		Roman Catholic schools	Schools with over 25% boarders
	Boys	Girls		
No subjects attempted	19·2	22·7	41·0	28·8
All subjects failed	4·2	3·9	6·4	6·8
1 pass	5·9	8·7	10·2	10·1
2 passes	13·6	17·3	14·3	15·8
3 passes	42·2	37·2	19·1	33·7
4 or more	14·9	10·3	9·0	4·7
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Number of leavers	2,384	1,796	5,024	1,934

17. *Destination of school leavers*

Percentages

Destination	Boys	Girls	Total
(i) *Further full-time education*			
(a) University			
Oxford or Cambridge	10·2	3·2	6·7
Other U.K. University	36.7	25·3	31·0
University outside U.K.	0·3	0·4	0·3
Unknown University	0·7	0·2	0·5
(b) College of Education	3·9	21·5	12·7
(c) Other full-time or sandwich course at a F.E. Establishment	23·1	23·4	23·2
(ii) *Employment or Apprenticeship*			
Industry and commerce	9·8	12·0	10·9
Professional apprenticeship			
(a) Law	0·3	0·1	0·2
(b) Accountancy	2·3	0·2	1·3
(c) Librarianship	0·1	0·6	0·3
(d) Engineering	0·1	—	0·1
(e) Other	0·9	0·1	0·5
Other apprenticeship	3·1	0·5	1·8
Merchant Navy	0·2	·	0·1
Nursing (including nursing courses)	0·1	3·8	1·9
Child nursing	·	0·5	0·3
Other medical careers (e.g. physiotherapy)	0·5	1·6	1·1
Agriculture or Forestry	0·9	0·1	0·5
Public service			
(a) Armed forces	1·2	0·1	0·7
(b) Civil Service	1·4	2·9	2·2
(c) Local government	0·7	0·3	0·6
(d) Other	1·0	0·9	0·9
(iii) *Other destination*	2·3	2·0	2·1
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0

Destination stated	6,735	6,788	13,523
Number of leavers	7,374	7,179	14,553

18. *Destination of school leavers related to educational level*

Percentages

Destination	Did not attempt 'O' level	Attempted 'O' level but not 'A' level	Attempted 'A' level passed 1 or no subjects	Attempted 'A' level passed 2 or more subjects
(i) *Further full-time education*				
(a) University				
Oxford or Cambridge	1·5	0·1	0·1	11·2
Other U.K. University	4·4	0·1	1·5	51·9
University outside U.K.	3·4	0·2	0·3	0·3
Unknown University	—	.	0·3	0·7
(b) College of Education	0·5	2·7	37·0	11·6
(c) Other full-time or sandwich course at a F.E. Establishment	29·1	37·4	31·4	15·1
(ii) *Employment and Apprenticeship* Industry and commerce	26·6	28·6	10·6	2·9
Professional apprenticeship				
(a) Law	—	0·1	0·1	0·2
(b) Accountancy	0·5	1·7	1·9	1·0
(c) Librarianship	—	0·5	0·4	0·2
(d) Engineering	—	0·2	0·1	—
(e) Other	—	0·8	1·0	0·3
Other apprenticeship	7·9	5·2	1·3	0·3
Merchant Navy	0·5	0·3	0·1	
Nursing (including nursing courses)	1·5	4·3	3·1	0·7
Child nursing	2·0	0·8	0·1	
Other medical careers (e.g. physiotherapy)	—	1·8	2·7	0·4
Agriculture or Forestry	5·9	1·3	0·3	0·1
Public service				
(a) Armed forces	3·9	1·1	0·9	0·4
(b) Civil Service	3·9	5·0	2·0	0·9
(c) Local government	—	1·5	0·6	0·3
(d) Other	—	2·0	1·4	0·4
(iii) *Other destination*	8·4	3·9	2·8	1·0
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Destination stated	203	3,448	1,880	8,016
Number of leavers	275	4,026	2,051	8,228

19. *Destination of school leavers related to social class of father*

Percentages

Destination	I & II Professional and managerial	IIIa Other non-manual	IIIb Skilled manual	IV & V Semi- and unskilled	Armed forces	Not known or father deceased or incapacitated
(i) *Further full-time education*						
(a) University						
Oxford or Cambridge	8·8	6·6	3·8	2·6	4·2	3·4
Other U.K. University	35·3	31·0	26·3	21·8	31·3	21·9
University outside U.K.	0·4	0·1	0·1	—	1·2	0·4
Unknown University	0·6	0·2	0·3	0·1	1·8	0·5
(b) College of Education	10·9	13·7	12·9	15·4	8·0	20·2
(c) Other full-time or sandwich course at a F.E. Establishment	25·1	21·7	19·4	18·1	31·5	23·3
(ii) *Employment or Apprenticeship* Industry and commerce	7·0	11·1	18·1	21·4	7·7	13·4
Professional apprenticeship						
(a) Law	0·2	0·1	0·1	0·1	—	0·3
(b) Accountancy	1·1	1·5	2·0	1·9	0·9	0·6
(c) Librarianship	0·2	0·5	0·4	0·9	—	0·3
(d) Engineering	—	—	—	—	—	0·2
(e) Other	0·5	0·4	0·7	0·8	0·3	0·5

19. *Destination of school leavers related to social class of father* (continued)

Percentages

Destination	I and II Professional and managerial	IIIa Other non-manual	IIIb Skilled manual	IV & V Semi- and un-skilled	Armed forces	Not known or father deceased or incapacitated
Other apprenticeship	1·3	1·8	3·6	1·8	0·3	1·6
Merchant Navy	·	—	0·2	0·2	0·6	—
Nursing (incl. nursing courses)	1·9	1·5	1·8	2·8	1·8	2·4
Child nursing	0·1	0·3	0·3	0·5	0·6	0·5
Other medical careers (e.g. physiotherapy)	0·9	0·8	1·5	1·1	—	1·6
Agriculture or Forestry	0·8	0·1	·	0·1	0·3	0·4
Public service						
(a) Armed forces	0·5	0·8	0·6	1·3	3·9	0·8
(b) Civil Service	1·1	2·6	3·2	4·2	1·8	4·3
(c) Local government	0·3	0·7	1·1	0·5	0·6	1·0
(d) Other	0·5	1·8	1·1	2·2	1·2	0·8
(iii) *Other destination*	2·1	2·7	2·2	2·2	2·1	1·7
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Destination stated	7,197	1,499	2,320	852	336	1,317
Number of leavers	7,581	1,628	2,552	955	362	1,475

20. *Destination of school leavers related to type of place held*

Percentages

Destination	Residuary places	Free or reserved places previously residuary places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places
(i) *Further full-time education*				
(a) University				
Oxford or Cambridge	5·5	6·2	7·0	19·3
Other U.K. University	28·5	35·0	32·2	30·5
University outside U.K.	0·6	0·2	0·1	1·7
Unknown University	0·5	0·9	0·5	0·4
(b) College of Education	9·2	23·2	14·3	7·7
(c) Other full-time or sandwich course at a F.E. Establishment	30·9	22·1	19·0	18·9
(ii) *Employment or Apprenticeship*				
Industry and commerce	9·1	2·3	12·5	9·0
Professional apprenticeship				
(a) Law	0·3	0·2	0·1	0·4
(b) Accountancy	1·2	1·9	1·3	1·3
(c) Librarianship	0·2	0·4	0·4	0·4
(d) Engineering	0·1	—	·	—
(e) Other	0·6	0·2	0·5	0·9
Other apprenticeship	2·1	0·9	1·7	2·6
Merchant Navy	0·1	0·2	0·1	—
Nursing (including nursing courses)	2·2	1·5	1·7	0·9
Child nursing	0·4	0·2	0·2	1·3
Other medical careers (e.g. physiotherapy)	1·2	1·3	1·0	0·4
Agriculture or Forestry	1·1	0·6	0·1	1·3
Public service				
(a) Armed forces	1·0	0·4	0·6	0·4
(b) Civil Service	1·0	0·4	3·0	0·4
(c) Local government	0·3	0·4	0·8	—
(d) Other	0·9	0·6	1·0	—
(iii) *Other destination*	2·8	0·9	1·8	2·1
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Destination stated	4,674	470	8,146	233
Number of leavers	4,983	480	8 847	243

21. *Destination of school leavers related to categories of schools*

Percentages

Destination	Schools with large VIth forms		Roman Catholic schools	Schools with over 25% boarders
	Boys	Girls		
(i) *Further full-time education*				
(a) University				
Oxford or Cambridge	15·2	6·0	1·7	7·0
Other U.K. University	40·9	33·2	22·5	30·1
University outside U.K.	0·1	0·6	0·2	0·2
Unknown University	1·3	0·5	0·3	0·8
(b) College of Education	2·1	17·0	20·0	6·5
(c) Other full-time or sandwich course at a F.E. establishment	18·9	25·7	19·3	31·6
(ii) *Employment or apprenticeship*				
(a) Professional apprenticeship	3·9	1·3	1·9	3·1
(b) Employment	15·1	14·3	32·0	18·9
(iii) *Other Destination*	2·5	1·5	2·0	1·7
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0
Destination stated	2,205	1,746	4,417	1,833
Number of leavers	2,384	1,796	5,024	1,934

22. *Social class of fathers*

Numbers

Social class	Boarding pupils			Day pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
A. Father's occupation stated, (excluding father in armed forces or deceased or incapacitated)	756	198	954	5,859	5,903	11,762
B. Father in armed forces	158	49	207	72	83	155
C. Father's occupation not known or father deceased or incapacitated	71	27	98	458	919	1,377
D. Total number of leavers	985	274	1,259	6,389	6,905	13,294

*Percentages

I and II Professional and managerial	83·9	88·9	84·9	56·0	59·1	57·6
III (a) Other non-manual	7·5	5·1	7·0	14·0	12·5	13·3
III (b) Skilled manual	7·4	4·5	6·8	22·5	19·8	21·1
IV and V Semi- and unskilled	1·2	1·5	1·3	7·5	8·5	8·0
Total percentage	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

* The percentages relate only to leavers with fathers in Group A i.e. those whose fathers' occupations were known and could be classified

23. *Social class of fathers related to type of place held*

Numbers

Social class	Residuary places	Free and reserved places previously residuary places	L.E.A. free and reserved places	Governors' free places
A. Father's occupation stated, (excluding father in armed forces or deceased or incapacitated)	4,414	433	7,658	211
B. Father in armed forces	191	9	153	9
C. Father's occupation not known or father deceased or incapacitated	378	38	1,036	23
D. Total number of leavers	4,983	480	8,847	243

*Percentages

I and II Professional and managerial	75·3	71·6	49·9	61·6
III (a) Other non-manual	10·2	12·7	14·2	15·2
III (b) Skilled manual	11·4	11·8	25·6	18·0
IV and V Semi- and unskilled	3·1	3·9	10·3	5·2
Total percentage	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

* The percentages relate only to leavers with fathers in group A i.e. those whose fathers' occupations were known and could be classified.

24. *Social class of fathers of school leavers related to categories of schools*

Numbers

Class	Schools with large VIth forms		Roman Catholic schools	Schools with over 25% boarders
	Boys	Girls		
A. Father's occupation stated, (excluding father in armed forces or deceased or incapacitated)	2,178	1,657	4,084	1,638
B. Father in armed forces	33	43	53	176
C. Father's occupation not known or father deceased or incapacitated	173	96	887	120
D. Total number of leavers	2,384	1,796	5,024	1,934

*Percentages

I and II Professional and managerial	64·4	71·3	37·5	72·8
III (a) Other non-manual	13·5	11·2	13·7	11·9
III (b) Skilled manual	19·0	12·9	32·8	12·0
IV and V Semi- and unskilled	3·1	4·6	16·0	3·3
Total percentage	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

* The percentages relate only to leavers with fathers in group A i.e. those whose fathers' occupations were known and could be classified.

25. *Income of parents of residuary place holders*

Income ranges	Percentage of pupils			Actual number of pupils		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Under £1,000	6·1	8·3	7·1	165	190	355
£1,000–£1,500	8·9	9·0	9·0	240	207	447
£1,500–£2,000	5·7	4·5	5·1	154	103	257
Over £2,000	2·5	2·7	2·6	66	62	128
Income not known	76·7	75·5	76·2	2,060	1,736	3,796
Total number of residuary place holders	2,685	2,298	4,983	2,685	2,298	4,983

SECTION 4

THE QUESTIONNAIRE TO LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

(i) *Copy of questionnaire*

Direct Grant Grammar Schools

1. (a) Please list the direct grant grammar schools at which the Authority take up free or reserved places and state the number of pupils holding those places in January, 1968.

Name of School	No. of pupils			
	Free Places		Reserved Places	
	Day	Boarding	Day	Boarding
Total				

(b) Does the Authority take up free or reserved places for fee payers already in the upper school, and if so, in what circumstances? Please state how many such places were taken up in the academic year 1967/68.

2. What arrangements are there for informing parents of the places which are available in direct grant schools, and the conditions for admission to them? Please attach any leaflets which are made generally available or are sent to parents who enquire.

3. *Circular 10/65*

   (a) Name the school(s) listed in the answer to question 1 with which agreement has been reached on the role to be played by the school in the Authority's plans for comprehensive reorganisation and indicate briefly what that role will be. (Please use separate sheet, if necessary.)

   (b) Name the school(s) listed in the answer to question 1 with which no agreement has been reached, stating in each case what proposals the Authority has put to the school and what the response of the school has been. (Please use separate sheet, if necessary.)

Day Places in Independent Schools

4. Please name any independent schools at which the Authority take up day places and state the numbers of pupils for whom the Authority were paying the fees in January, 1968.

Name of School	No. of day pupils for whom Authority pay:	
	full fees	part fees

5. How are these pupils selected?

6. If pupils are assisted by the Authority in accordance with a parental income scale, please attach two copies of the scale.

7. What arrangements are there for informing parents of the day places which are available in independent schools, and the conditions for admission to them? Please attach any leaflets which are made generally available or are sent to parents who enquire.

(ii) *Results of the survey*
Direct grant grammar schools

1(*a*) *Table A*

Number of direct grant grammar schools at which authorities take up free or reserved places and number of pupils holding those places, January 1968

England and Wales

Type of school	Number of schools	Number of free and reserved places		
		Day	Boarding	Total
Non-Catholic schools	122	29,390	717	30,107
Catholic schools	56	29,288	67	29,355
Total	178	58,678	784	59,462

1(*a*) *Table B*

Number of local education authorities taking up free and reserved places in direct grant grammar schools

Number of free and reserved places taken up by L.E.A.	Number of L.E.A.s
Nil	39
1–100	29
101–200	19
201–300	22
301–400	16
401–500	8
501–1,000	21
1,001–2,000	5
2,001–3,000	3
over 10,000	1
Total	163

1(*b*) *The taking up of free and reserved places for pupils who entered the upper schools as fee-payers*

Seventy authorities replied that they never awarded such places for pupils who entered as fee-payers.

Where free places were awarded, the commonest reasons were that the pupil had been re-assessed at 12+ or 13+ as suitable for grammar school education (10 authorities) or had entered the sixth form (24 authorities assumed responsibility for pupils entering sixth forms, sometimes subject to a stipulated level of achievement in the Ordinary level of the G.C.E.).

2. *The methods by which authorities inform parents of the places available at direct grant schools*

Sixty-five authorities gave full information about direct grant school places in a leaflet which they sent to all parents who had a child of the age of transfer to secondary education.

Thirteen said that the direct grant school places were simply the grammar school provision for a particular area and that suitable children would be automatically assigned to them. Nine authorities only mentioned direct grant school places to the parents of children who had been selected for grammar school education. In the case of nine authorities the heads of the primary schools informed parents.

The remaining sixty-seven authorities had less formal arrangements, but they were generally the ones which took fewest places.

While there was a great variety of different arrangements, the main impression left by the leaflets issued by authorities was that the onus was on parents to opt for a direct grant school place if they wanted one. The thirteen authorities mentioned above who allocated direct grant school places as a matter of course were the exception.

3(*a*) *Direct grant schools and comprehensive reorganisation*

Eighteen local authorities said they had reached agreements of one kind or another with twenty-six schools. Two schools had agreed to become fully comprehensive. Eleven had agreed to admit pupils by 'guided parental choice' at the age of 13+ or 14+. Four schools would in future be admitting local authority pupils only to sixth form courses. In the remaining cases, the schools had agreed to some extension of the ability range from which they admitted pupils. Three schools were going to raise the age of admission to 12.

Note: These statistics relate to agreements reached between a school and the local authority in whose administrative area the school is situated. The agreements often cover only those pupils whose fees are paid by that authority. They may not involve a radical alteration in the nature of the school if it admits a large proportion of its pupils from other authorities or as fee-payers.

3(*b*) *Schools with which authorities have reached no agreement on their role within a comprehensive system*

The replies to this question do not lend themselves to simple statistical analysis. Some authorities had made no proposals to schools at which they took up places on the grounds that the schools were outside their administrative area and could not therefore be fully incorporated in their schemes. In the case of many of the denominational schools the local authorities are awaiting the outcome of discussions at diocesan level on the future of all the denominational schools (whether direct grant or voluntary schools) within the area. A few county authorities which were implementing their reorganisation schemes at a different speed in different parts of their territory, had decided to defer negotiations with the direct grant schools until they were able to reorganise the areas from which the direct grant schools drew their pupils. Eight authorities had informed one or more direct grant schools that they would cease to take up places at some future date.

Note: Twelve direct grant schools are in the areas of local authorities which have declined to submit a scheme for the reorganisation of secondary education and five in the areas of authorities whose schemes the Secretary of State for Education and Science has rejected.

Independent schools

4. Table A

Number of independent schools at which authorities take up day places and numbers of pupils for whom they were paying fees in January, 1968

England

Type of school	Number of schools	Number of day pupils for whom authorities paid:		
		full fees	part fees	Total
Non-Catholic schools	82	7,134	563	7,697
Catholic schools	93	11,449	986	12,435
Unspecified schools	Not known	14	206	220
Total number of schools known	175	18,597	1,755	20,352

Note: None of the Welsh local education authorities took up places at independent schools.

4. Table B

Number of local education authorities taking up day places in independent schools

Number of day places taken up by L.E.A.	Number of L.E.A.s
Nil	70
1–100	37
101–200	24
201–300	17
301–400	5
401–500	2
501–1,000	7
over 1,001	1
Total	163

5. How are these pupils selected?

Thirty-two authorities allocated pupils who qualified for grammar schools to Roman Catholic independent schools when their parents expressed a preference for a Catholic school. In nineteen areas pupils went to the schools on the authority's assessment. These were generally the top scorers in the secondary selection tests requesting the school. Ten authorities used the independent schools to supplement their own grammar school provision. Six authorities replied that selection from candidates graded as suitable for grammar school was left to the schools, and five others let the schools interview or otherwise select pupils if their parents requested the schools. In five areas some candidates who took the school's own examination were allocated free or assisted places by the local authority. There were two authorities who only sent pupils to independent schools if there were special circumstances, e.g. selected pupils with exceptional musical ability. Seventy local education authorities did not take up any places at independent schools.

A small number of authorities are still paying for existing pupils in independent schools but have ceased to take up any new places, and a few provided details of places taken up but no information on how pupils were selected, because they considered each case on its merits.

6. *Income scales used in assessing parents' contributions for assisted places*

Twenty-one authorities sent in sixteen different income scales. One scale assessed the contribution at nil on an income of £915, asking the parent to contribute £10 for every £50 of income thereafter so that a parent with an income of £2,015 would pay £220. Another scale put the nil contribution as low as £286, asking the parent to contribute £2 for every additional £30 up to an income of £676, and thereafter £3 for every £30. Under this scale a parent with an income of £2,026 would pay £161. Yet another scale asked £3 of a parent whose income was £250 and thereafter £2 10. 0 for every £100 of income. Thus, the parent with an income of £2,050 a year would pay £48. There were also considerable variations in how much the parent had to pay for a second child to go to the independent school (sometimes the same contribution, sometimes half of it, sometimes no further contribution), and in the allowances made to parents for other dependent children or relatives.

7. *The methods by which authorities inform parents of the places available at independent schools*

Thirty-eight authorities gave full information about independent school places in a leaflet which they sent to all parents with a child at the age of transfer to secondary education.

Six authorities said that the independent school places were the grammar school provision for a particular area and that suitable children would be automatically assigned to them.

Eleven authorities only mentioned independent school places to the parents of children who had been selected for grammar school education.

Five left it to the head teacher of the primary school to inform parents about independent school places.

Nine authorities did not advertise independent school places but gave information to parents about them on request. Altogether 93 authorities take places at independent day schools. The 14 whose methods of information are not described above either did not answer the question or said that there was no heed to advertise the arrangements since they were well known.

The impression gained from the leaflets was that most authorities offered to pay for Roman Catholic pupils to go to Roman Catholic independent schools as a matter of course. For other independent schools they normally stated how many pupils they were prepared to assist (usually a very small number) and stressed that parents would have to accept the authority's choice of secondary school if their child was not accepted by the independent school.

SECTION 5

QUESTIONS PUT TO GOVERNING BODIES OF DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS

(i) *Copy of enclosure 'A'*

Enclosure A

Questions

1. *'Participation in the movement towards comprehensive reorganisation'*
In July 1965 (Circular 10/65, para. 39) the Secretary of State expressed the hope that governing bodies of direct grant grammar schools would be ready to consider changes, for instance in curriculum and in method and age of entry, to enable them to participate fully in a local scheme for comprehensive education.

- (a) Have you any suggestions about the way in which your school could participate in the movement towards comprehensive reorganisation?
- (b) Have you had any discussions with any local education authority? If so, what has been the result to date?

2. *'The principle of central Government grant'*
Most schools supported from public funds are maintained by local education authorities.

- (a) At the present stage of development of the national educational system, what reasons do you see for and against continuing direct grant from the Exchequer to some schools?
- (b) What criteria should be used to determine the schools which should receive direct grant?
- (c) In what ways do direct grant schools have greater or less freedom than voluntary aided schools in fulfilling their purpose as schools?
- (d) In what ways do direct grant schools have greater or less freedom than independent schools in fulfilling their purpose as schools?
- (e) What changes, if any, would you suggest in the present grant arrangements (capitation grant, sixth form capitation grant, grant in respect of fee remissions) and in the present controls exercised by the Department of Education and Science?

(ii) *Extracts from the replies*

Questions 1(a) and 1(b)

The replies to these questions did not differ much from those of the heads to questions 14(i), (ii) and (iii), in Section 2 of this Appendix and have not therefore been separately analysed.

Questions 2(a)—2(e)

These questions drew replies from most governing bodies, in some cases quite lengthy. The views expressed were very diverse and different governing bodies sometimes made the same point in answer to different questions. Instead of statistical tables we therefore give summaries of the most common points of view expressed in answer to each question and a few quotations from individual replies.

2(a) The two reasons most commonly given were that the direct grant schools provided for a very wide social mix and that the direct grant system saved public money. Many governing bodies also said that their schools provided a choice which parents would not otherwise have had available to them, and that their schools served wider areas than those maintained by local education authorities. A few suggested that it would be wrong to alter arrangements which had been proved to work well, and that the schools constituted a bridge between the maintained and independent sectors. Quite a number of governing bodies made, in one way or another, the point that it was desirable to avoid a State monopoly in education and that to this end a diversity of administrative arrangements was desirable. Very few governing bodies saw any reasons against continuing the direct grant system. Where they did, the drawback mentioned was usually the difficulty of obtaining funds for building, or the incongruity of the system with comprehensive reorganisation.

Quotations

A wide social mix

'[The direct grant system] makes possible, through the provision of free places and the operation of the fee remission scale, the genuine accessibility of the schools to children of widely differing social backgrounds and without regard to local administrative boundaries, subject only to their ability to profit from the school's type of education.'

Saving public money

'The grant helps to provide schools of high quality at low cost to the local education authorities and to parents who are willing and able to pay modest fees. If, as a result of the withdrawal of the grant some became independent, local education authorities might find it difficult to increase their own provision of secondary places, which cost them more than the direct grant ones.'

A wide catchment area

'Many of the [direct grant] schools cater for a wide catchment area, and serve several education authorities. Roman Catholic direct grant schools, like ours, draw their pupils from even wider catchment areas.'

Against a State monopoly

'A monopoly in the form of a State education system which brooks no rivals and no alternatives, is as much to be deplored as a monopoly in business.'

Reasons against continuing direct grant

'At the present time the reasons against continuing direct grant from the Exchequer to some schools are (1) that most of these schools are devoted to the education of children who have been selected for academic courses; (2) that their high academic standards, strong traditions and family ties, together with the high standard of their athletic and sporting achievements, make them so desirable in the eyes of parents that they prevent the achievement of parity of esteem among the schools in any area.'

2(b) The three most popular criteria were mentioned with about equal frequency. They were that the schools should have a high academic standard, should cater for a wide area, and that denominational schools had a special claim to inclusion in the direct grant list. Other criteria suggested were that the school might complement local education authority provision, might offer boarding places to local authorities, or might engage in experimental work.

Quotations

High academic standards

'They should have high academic standards which in turn lead to a larger percentage in the sixth forms, and a higher proportion of university admissions.'

A wide catchment area

'Consideration should be given to the local needs of the area in which the school is situated. This school serves several education authorities and the denominational needs of three dioceses, a task it could not perform without the freedom consequent on its direct grant status.'

Denominational schools

'The following claims should be considered . . .
(3) Schools which provide for children (with the required academic ability) of parents who wish them to be educated in accordance with their religious convictions. This would apply to our school, in an area with a population of 600,000 with only one Church of England comprehensive school, which must itself provide, in the first instance, for its own parish.'

2(c) Many governing bodies made the point that the freedom allowed to voluntary aided schools varied very much between different authorities. However, they almost all thought that direct grant schools had more freedom. The points most generally made were that the direct grant schools were freer to appoint staff, to arrange their own budgets and were able to admit pupils chosen by themselves.

Quotations

The appointment of staff

'[A direct grant school's] staff is selected and remunerated directly by the school. Masters are therefore more inclined to feel themselves essential to its well-being and to furthering out-of-school activities—in our case this is an outstanding characteristic.'

Arranging a budget

'Direct grant schools have more flexibility in using their resources so that their educational provision can be related directly to the particular needs of their pupils. In general organisation, they can act more freely to this end than might be possible in conforming to a set pattern necessarily involved in more general local arrangements.'

Admissions

'[We have] the power to admit boys from the whole natural "catchment area" without reference to agreements on the subject between neighbouring local education authorities.'

2(d) Almost all governing bodies said they had just as much freedom as the governors of independent schools, except in so far as the Department of Education and Science exercised financial control.

2(e) At present the capitation and sixth form grants are paid in arrears in three instalments during the educational year. The amount of grant is calculated on the numbers of pupils in the school on 1st March of the year in question. The present scale for fee remissions is given in Appendix 9, Section 3. It was fixed in 1963 and does not apply to boarders.

The payment of grant in arrears and only three times a year was said to cause difficulty to some governing bodies who have to arrange 'bridging' overdrafts at considerable expense. Some suggested monthly payments which, as they said, are the practice with voluntary colleges of education.

A great many deprecated the practice of assessing the grant on the roll at 1st March. This took no account of the Christmas leaver who, it was claimed, was becoming more common as more candidates applied for university places. Assessments at a date near the beginning of each term were suggested.

Almost all governing bodies asked that a new and more generous scale for fee remissions should be devised, and many wanted it to be applicable to boarders.

At present a school has to apply to the Department of Education and Science for permission to raise its fees, and many felt that this permission was not given quickly enough, particularly when a rise in costs was inevitable (e.g. after a Burnham award).

Many schools would like to be able to allocate money from current income to a reserve for minor capital projects. At present the larger items of maintenance were liable to distort annual budgets.

In January, 1968, the capitation grant was cut by £20 from £52 to £32, while the sixth form grant stayed unchanged. Some schools asked that the ratio between the two should be adjusted. Sixth form education was more expensive than the education of younger pupils but not in the ratio £32: £116. Many schools asked that the capitation grant be restored to its old level.

About 20 governing bodies suggested that the distinction between free and residuary places should be abolished and that all pupils be admitted as fee-payers, with a generous scale for remissions. Three schools specifically mentioned that they were against this, preferring to maintain the links with local authorities which the present arrangements gave them.

Quotations

'[The Governors] would like to see certain improvements made, e.g.:

(i) a more rapid approval of fee increases to set off statutory decisions on salary scales;

(ii) the recognition for grant of pupils who leave before the 1st March. Practically all such leavers are in the sixth form where the loss of grant income weighs particularly heavily on the schools;

(iii) permission to schools to set aside current income for expensive contingencies, e.g. a burst boiler, or for the purchase of more than usually expensive technical or teaching equipment.'

'Unfortunately the [fee remission] scheme is at present based on calculations which are out of date. The result is that only parents whose weekly income is less than £10 per week can receive full remission of fees for the first child. Therefore a large group of relatively poor parents whose daughters could benefit from the school course do not take up places we offer them for financial reasons.'

'The money spent on assisted places and free places could be much better employed if a system of grants similar to those for Higher education were applied to all pupils. An outline scheme might be as follows:

Income under £1,000 per annum — no parental contribution
Income under £2,500 per annum — scaled contribution

These scales would apply to the tuition of boarders as well as day boys. They should be reviewed every three years.

An additional advantage of such a scheme would be that the local education authority would not have to choose pupils for free places. Parents would have a realistic alternative to maintained schools in their area if they were prepared to pay a contribution. The risk of creaming neighbourhood schools would be reduced.'

APPENDIX 7

THE FINANCES OF THE DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS

by Howard Glennerster

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1. THE SURVEYS

All the direct grant schools make regular financial returns to the Department of Education and Science. To study the schools' regular income and their current expenditure it was sufficient to use the Form 312G returns. One of these forms is reproduced as an annex to this Appendix. To study capital expenditure it was necessary to mount a separate survey. For this purpose the schools' governing bodies were asked to fill in a questionnaire almost identical to that used in the first part of the Commission's work. This is also reproduced. Returns were obtained from all the direct grant schools though a few schools were unable to distinguish all the categories. Attention is drawn to this where appropriate.

These surveys covered only direct grant schools. The previous survey published as Appendix 12 to the First Report included the independent day schools listed in the Commission's terms of reference.

2. THE SCHOOLS' INCOME

The complex mixture of public and private support which the direct grant schools enjoy is described in Chapter 4 of the main Report.

The various sources of income can be grouped under four main headings: income received direct from the Department of Education and Science, income from local education authorities, fee income from parents and others and a miscellaneous category of 'other income'.

The Department of Education and Science

The capitation grants have the longest history. From time to time these have been increased as costs have risen. The Associations representing the direct grant schools have made a practice of asking the Department to consider increasing the level of the grant whenever there has been an increase in teachers' salary scales. On these occasions the effect of other pay and price increases are also taken into account.

Immediately after the second world war, when the regulations were introduced in more or less their present form, capitation grants met about 30 per cent of the schools' current expenditure. At that stage there was just one capitation grant regardless of the age of the pupils. Subsequently an additional sixth form grant was introduced in 1954. This brought the schools a higher level of grant for every child in the sixth form following advanced level courses. By 1956–57 the proportion of tuition expenditure met from capitation grants had risen to nearly 40 per cent. This figure rose to 43 per cent by 1964 but subsequently declined again. (See Table 1.) The financial year 1967–68 was the latest period for which complete financial returns were available from the schools. However, in 1968–69 as part of the general measures to contain government expenditure, the basic capitation grant was cut by £20 to £32. The sixth form grant remained at £84. In the current financial year the capitation and sixth form grants will probably form about a quarter of the schools' income.

The remitted fees grant, introduced in 1945, obliges the Department of Education and Science to make up the difference between the fee paid by parents according to the income scale laid down by the Department and the full tuition fee. The Direct Grant School Regulations give the Department power to approve the fees of each school. In general the schools must submit estimates and explanations of increases in expenditure with any application to raise fees. The reasonableness of costs per pupil under the separate account headings are established by reference to average costs in direct grant schools as a whole and arrangements in comparable maintained schools.

Local Education Authorities

Local education authorities contribute directly to the schools' income by paying the fees of those pupils they send to the schools. Since the schools are receiving a grant from the central government the fees they charge do not meet the full cost. The fees paid by a local authority are therefore lower than the average cost of educating a child in a local authority school. The rate support grant is, however, adjusted to take this into account.

Parents

Parents pay fees according to the income scale shown in Appendix 9. In 1968 73 per cent of parents who paid fees, paid in full.

Table 1 shows the income of upper schools in the financial year 1967–68. The tuition and boarding activities of the schools are kept separate for accounting purposes. This distinction, not found in independent schools, is made necessary because the central government grant is meant to cover tuition and not boarding activities.

The accounts as returned in Form 312G include school meals expenses and the payments made by parents of day pupils for school meals. The last item has been excluded from this and subsequent tables. It removed one complicating factor from the comparisons between different types of school. Taken overall the Department of Education and Science contributed nearly 42 per cent of the schools' tuition income in 1967–68.

Payments of basic fees and extra charges by parents constituted nearly 22 per cent of schools tuition income in 1967–68. Local authorities met 34 per cent of tuition income. Other income, primarily transfers from foundation accounts, was very small—3 per cent. Foundation account income partly covers the cost of governors' free place pupils selected by the school.

The sum included as income of foundation and reserve accounts is the total of all payments made from these accounts into school revenue accounts. Only some schools will have been doing this. Others have been transferring money out of their revenue accounts into their foundation accounts. This may be the repayment of money borrowed in previous years or the accumulation of funds for emergencies. If transfers to and from all the schools' foundation accounts are offset against one another the 'net' flow of income into all the schools' accounts from sources other than grants and fees amounted to only about £108,000 on tuition account.

'Other income' even in gross terms is smaller than the comparable figure for independent day schools where it was 6 per cent of total income in 1965–66. (See First Report, Appendix 12, Table 10.)

The income to boarding accounts shows a very different pattern. Only 4.5 per cent takes the form of fees paid by local authorities and there are no grants from public funds. Indirect support from public funds is, however, larger than these figures suggest. Returns to the Commission by government departments showed that in 1966–67 2,720 boarding pupils were supported at direct grant schools out of public funds. This figure was equivalent to 28 per cent of all boarding pupils at direct grant schools in 1967. The allowances paid to servicemen and other government departments therefore met a substantial part of the cost of boarding fees. Total support from public funds is unlikely to be equivalent to less than a quarter of boarding account income and is probably more.

Table 1

The sources of income of all direct grant grammar schools 1967–68

Percentages and £

Category of income	Upper school tuition		Boarding account	
	£	%	£	%
Payments by D.E.S.				
Capitation Grants	7,168,115	38·8	—	—
Remitted Fees	522,806	2·8	—	—
Foreign assistants	8,895	0·1	—	—
Total payments by D.E.S.	7,699,816	41·6	—	—
Payments by local education authorities				
Fees	6,269,683	33·9	93,085	4·5
Grants	161	—	—	—
Total payments by local education authorities	6,269,844	33·9	93,085	4·5
Payments by parents and others				
Fees	3,848,870	20·8	1,830,691	88·8
Extra subjects	149,277	0·8	—	—
Total payments by parents and others	3,998,147	21·6	1,830,691	88·8
Other income				
Foundation and reserve accounts	341,701	1·9	51,771	2·5
Payments by resident staff for board and lodging	6,405	—	48,641	2·4
Reserve funds and repairs (item 17)	29,819	0·2	1,974	0·1
Miscellaneous	152,344	0·8	36,000	1·8
Total other income	530,269	2·9	138,386	6·7
Total income	18,498,076	100·0	2,062,162	100·0

Note: Income from parents in respect of school meals for day pupils has been omitted. For the upper school tuition account this amounted to £735,880.

Comparisons between groups of schools

There are important differences between schools and groups of schools in their dependence on public funds. Table 2 shows that the Catholic schools receive very little income in the form of parental fees—4.3 per cent in the case of boys' schools and 6.3 per cent in the case of girls'.

Table 2

Variations in sources of income for different types of direct grant school (upper school tuition accounts only) 1967–68

Percentages and £

Type of school	The percentage of income derived from the following sources:				Total income	
	Department of Education and Science	L.E.As.	Parents' and other fees	Other income	%	£
Boys' schools						
Schools with large sixth forms	41·6	27·7	25·2	5·5	100	3,423,790
Catholic schools	43·8	50·8	4·3	1·1	100	2,211,866
Boarding schools	38·5	21·5	35·8	4·2	100	2,081,791
All boys' schools	41·6	31·4	23·4	3·6	100	9,507,880
Girls' schools						
Schools with large sixth forms	39·2	31·8	25·6	3·4	100	2,229,712
Catholic schools	44·6	48·4	6·3	0·7	100	3,461,233
Boarding schools	38·5	24·1	30·8	6·6	100	550,012
All girls' schools	41·7	36·4	19·8	2·1	100	8,715,417
All schools (including co-ed)	41·6	33·9	21·6	2·9	100	18,498,076

Note: The 'all boys' category includes schools not analysed separately above. The same is true of the 'all girls' category. 'Boarding schools' are defined as schools with 25 per cent or more of their places filled by boarders.

Table 3 shows the wide variation in the dependence of schools upon public funds. At one extreme one school derived less than 40 per cent of its income from public funds; at the other, 46 schools received more than 90 per cent of their income from the State. These variations are explained by the extent to which local authorities take up places in the schools. Broadly the Catholic schools are at one end of the spectrum and boarding schools at the other. Some of the boarding schools have very few places that are taken up by local authorities.

Table 3

Variations in the dependence of direct grant schools on public funds (upper school tuition) 1967–68

Numbers of schools

Type of school	The number of schools which receive the following percentage of their incomes from public funds							All schools
	under 40	40–49	50–59	60–69	70–79	80–89	90–100	
Boys' schools								
Schools with large sixth forms	—	—	2	8	7	3	—	20
Catholic schools	—	—	—	—	1	2	16	19
Boarding schools	1	5	6	6	5	—	—	23
All boys' schools	1	5	8	27	17	7	16	81
Girls' schools								
Schools with large sixth forms	—	—	—	12	5	2	1	20
Catholic schools	—	—	—	1	2	6	28	37
Boarding schools	—	1	1	3	1	1	—	7
All girls' schools	—	1	8	28	15	14	29	95
All schools (including co-ed)	1	6	16	55	33	21	46	178

Note: 'Public Funds' means the total of payments from the Department of Education and Science and local education authorities as in Table 1.

Table 4 indicates that very few schools indeed have benefited in any major way from endowment income—at least on their tuition accounts.

Table 4

Variations in non-fee and non-grant income between schools (upper school tuition accounts) 1967–68

Numbers of schools

Type of school	The number of schools which have the following percentages of 'other' income:						All schools
	Up to 5	5–9	10–14	15–19	20–24	25 and over	
Boys' schools							
Schools with large sixth forms	14	2	3	—	—	1	20
Catholic schools	19	—	—	—	—	—	19
Boarding schools	20	2	—	—	—	1	23
All boys' schools	70	5	4	—	—	2	81
Girls' schools							
Schools with large sixth forms	19	—	—	—	—	1	20
Catholic schools	37	—	—	—	—	—	37
Boarding schools	5	1	—	—	—	1	7
All girls' schools	89	3	1	—	—	2	95
All schools (including co-ed)	161	8	5	—	—	4	178

Note: 'Other' income here means the same as 'Total other income' in Table 1.

Indirect support from the State

The First Report of the Public Schools Commission discussed the various tax advantages enjoyed by some independent schools registered as charities and a majority of those on that Commission recommended the removal of these advantages. Appendix 12 to that Report discussed the nature of the reliefs and estimated their value to the schools. It also discussed the nature of certain personal tax arrangements that were of benefit to parents.

There is no need to repeat that discussion here, though the law has subsequently been changed in important respects as far as personal tax arrangements are concerned. It is enough to point out that the same tax advantages that are derived from charitable status also apply to the direct grant schools. The value of the relief to the schools is shown below. All the qualifications to this that were made in the appendix to the First Report apply. To say that the schools would, under existing circumstances, have to pay over £1 million extra in taxes if the various reliefs were removed, is not to say that tax revenue would rise by that amount if the reliefs were removed. The schools might choose to employ fewer staff, for example. Moreover, any rise in fees that resulted would have to be paid, in large part, by local education authorities.

Table 5

Value of tax relief to the direct grant schools—upper schools 1968–69

£

Type of school	Rate relief	S.E.T. exemption	Relief on covenants to the school*	Total value of relief
Boys	177,697	422,994	55,500	656,191
Girls	129,179	271,234	34,869	435,282
All schools (including co-ed)	312,146	705,267	97,231	1,114,644

* Estimated from the size of appeal fund and donation income.

Note: Two boys' schools and one girls' school did not give either the amount of rate relief or S.E.T. exemption which they received.

3. THE SCHOOLS' CURRENT EXPENDITURE

The upper schools' expenditure on revenue account is analysed in Table 6. Again tuition and boarding expenses are distinguished. Only the boarding duties of teachers are charged to the boarding account. Unlike local authority accounts school meals expenses are included in the tuition account. Approximately £1.5 million was devoted to school meals in the year under review. This sum includes items 9 and 11, and some of items 2 and 4.

Table 6

Distribution of expenditure by economic categories

Percentages and £

Type of expenditure	Upper school tuition £	%	Boarding account £	%
Salaries				
1. Teachers' salaries (including superannuation and national insurance)	11,909,168	61·3	105,771	5·1
2. Other salaries (including national insurance etc.)	2,213,451	11·4	674,862	32·7
3. Total salaries	14,122,619	72·7	780,633	37·9
Other current expenditure				
4. Maintenance of premises	1,713,587	8·8	364,526	17·7
5. Books	313,155	1·6	—	—
6. Other equipment for teaching purposes	496,936	2·5	2,647	0·1
7. Establishment expenses	379,371	1·9	64,442	3·1
8. Miscellaneous	462,085	2·4	32,402	1·6
9. School meals overheads	242,006	1·2	—	—
10. Laundry	12,114	0·1	85,629	4·1
11. Food	753,221	3·9	619,339	30·1
12. Total other current expenditure	4,372,475	22·5	1,168,985	56·7
13. All current expenditure	18,495,094	95·2	1,949,618	94·6
14. Minor capital expenditure	179,496	0·9	13,429	0·6
15. Transfers to other accounts (other than as loan charges)	151,950	0·8	29,566	1·4
16. Loan charges	609,083	3·1	67,503	3·3
17. Total expenditure	19,435,623	100·0	2,060,116	100·0

Another way of expressing expenditure figures and comparing different groups of school is to show average expenditure per pupil under different heads. This is done in Table 7. Throughout, the Catholic schools stand out as exceptions. Salary expenditure is clearly lower. Many of the teachers in these schools are members of teaching orders. They receive salaries but these are repaid as gifts to the foundation. Nevertheless the salaries which are charged to the tuition accounts are based on the full Burnham scale. The explanation for the difference is mainly to be found in the higher pupil/teacher ratios these schools have. This in turn is partly explained by the smaller numbers in the sixth form. Other current expenditure per pupil is also slightly lower and it is only on loan charges where these schools' per pupil costs are significantly higher. That fact can be explained by their heavier reliance on borrowing to finance capital expenditure (see page 234, Appendix 7). Boarding schools have staff costs near or above those of the 'large sixth form' schools despite the fact that their sixth forms are not larger than other schools. The reason for this lies in the lower pupil/teacher ratios that boarding schools have. Much of the consequent extra expenditure clearly falls to the tuition account.

Table 7

Average expenditure per pupil by type of expenditure and category of school (upper school tuition account) 1967–68

£

Type of expenditure	Type of school								
	Boys' schools				Girls' schools				All schools
	Schools with large sixth forms	Catholic schools	Boarding schools	All schools	Schools with large sixth forms	Catholic schools	Boarding schools	All schools	
Salaries									
1. Teachers' salaries (including superannuation and national insurance).	128·55	108·87	126·48	121·74	125·14	101·76	128·95	114·73	118·50
2. Other salaries (including national insurance etc.).	27·59	19·94	25·31	24·45	22·47	18·03	24·80	19·48	22·02
3. Total salaries	156·15	128·81	151·80	146·19	147·61	119·79	153·76	134·22	140·52
Other current expenditure									
4. Maintenance of premises	20·09	16·39	19·57	18·50	16·51	14·72	21·32	15·52	17·05
5. Books	3·28	3·14	3·69	3·39	2·57	3·09	3·02	2·81	3·11
6. Other equipment for teaching purposes	5·32	5·64	5·78	5·46	4·33	4·63	4·27	4·36	4·94
7. Establishment expenses	4·16	3·33	4·73	4·20	4·52	2·14	3·88	3·35	3·77
8. Miscellaneous	6·02	5·36	6·30	5·79	3·54	2·87	4·26	3·37	4·59
9. School meals overheads	2·05	1·41	0·45	1·45	5·08	1·46	0·26	3·26	2·40
10. Laundry	0·11	0·08	0·16	0·11	0·06	0·18	0·22	0·13	0·12
11. Food	8·06	7·58	4·57	7·27	8·01	7·44	6·34	7·82	7·49
12. Total other current expenditure	49·13	42·96	45·29	46·19	44·64	36·56	43·60	40·64	43·50
13. All current expenditure	205·28	171·77	197·09	192·39	192·25	156·36	197·37	174·87	184·03
14. Minor capital expenditure	0·96	1·91	1·37	1·40	1·99	2·90	1·77	2·18	1·78
15. Transfers to other accounts (other than as loan charges)	2·15	0·15	3·29	1·69	3·11	0·09	0·99	1·33	1·51
16. Loan charges	3·11	9·10	3·85	5·46	7·18	6·43	4·03	6·63	6·06
17. Total expenditure	211·52	182·95	205·61	200·95	204·56	165·80	204·18	185·02	193·39

To complete the picture, Table 8 shows the range of unit costs. The costs per pupil only relate to current expenditure. They exclude loan charges and transfers to other funds and are equivalent to row 13 in the previous two tables. In short they relate to the value of resources devoted per child in the various schools. The table shows that this varies from under £140 per annum in four schools—all girls', to over £240 in five schools—four of which were boys'.

Table 8

Range of average expenditure (upper schools tuition) 1967–68

Numbers

Type of school	The number of schools with the following average current expenditure per pupil in £:							
	under 140	140–159	160–179	180–199	200–219	220–239	240 or more	All schools
Boys' schools								
Schools with large sixth forms	—	—	4	5	7	2	2	20
Catholic schools	—	2	12	5	—	—	—	19
Boarding schools	—	—	4	13	4	—	2	23
All boys' schools	—	2	22	31	18	4	4	81
Girls' schools								
Schools with large sixth forms	—	1	4	10	4	—	1	20
Catholic schools	4	20	10	3	—	—	—	37
Boarding pupils	—	—	2	2	1	2	—	7
All girls' schools	4	22	25	30	10	3	1	95
All schools (including co-ed)	4	24	47	63	28	7	5	178

4. THE SCHOOLS' CAPITAL EXPENDITURE

The schools receive no direct support from the central government in meeting capital costs. They therefore finance major capital expenditure in similar ways to the independent schools—by appeals, borrowing and using endowment funds. There are important differences, however. The main one is that the Department of Education and Science exerts strict control on the schools' building plans. All new building has to be approved by the Department. The nature of the control varies with the source of finance and the purpose of the expenditure.

Where building is financed from private sources—appeals, donations, gifts and endowment income—provided the building is economic to maintain, no cost limits are imposed.

Where endowment capital or accumulated income is used, again no cost limits are applied by the Department.

Where new building is undertaken and repayment of capital and interest are financed out of the school revenue account, fees must be raised and the cost will fall, in part, on public funds. The Department then applies cost limits as it does to local authority school building. In very rare cases it is possible to finance minor capital projects out of revenue or accumulated foundation funds.

The Department's present policy is as follows:

(a) It will normally approve improvement projects financed from voluntary or private funds.

(b) Only strictly limited projects are allowed to relieve severe overcrowding if they are financed from fee increases.

(c) Projects designed to increase the size of the main school, however the money is raised, are not normally approved.

The level of expenditure 1950–1968

This policy is of fairly recent application and capital expenditure by the schools in the last 18 years has been substantial. In that period the upper schools have spent over £27 million on new school building, and the lower schools over £1 million.

The figures in Table 9 refer to actual expenditure. There is no relevant price index that would convert the values to current prices. It may be worth pointing out that between 1950 and 1965 the price index for the construction industry rose by about 60 per cent.

It is interesting to compare this level of expenditure with that undertaken by the independent schools. In the 15 year period 1950–1965 the public schools had completed £47 million of capital expenditure. (First Report, Appendix 12, Table 21.) This compares with £21 million in the same period for the direct grant schools. The number of pupils involved was almost the same.

Table 9

Capital expenditure in the direct grant schools 1950–1968

£

Financial Year	Nature of expenditure			Total
	Purchase of land not for building	Buildings	Furniture and equipment	
Upper schools (Tuition and boarding)				
1950/51–1954/55	64,000	2,546,000	219,000	2,829,000
1955/56–1959/60	95,000	6,333,000	443,000	6,871,000
1960/61–1964/65	219,000	10,538,000	652,000	11,409,000
1965/66–1967/68	61,000	5,508,000	440,000	6,009,000
1950 – 1968	439,000	24,925,000	1,754,000	27,118,000
Lower schools (Tuition and boarding)				
1950/51–1954/55	—	174,000	12,000	186,000
1955/56–1959/60	—	212,000	11,000	223,000
1960/61–1964/65	—	287,000	9,000	296,000
1965/66–1967/68	—	480,000	4,000	484,000
1950 – 1968	—	1,153,000	36,000	1,189,000

Note: Figures to the nearest £1,000. Prior to 1961 minor capital expenditure was not separated from expenditure on school maintenance. The above table only includes major work. Minor capital expenditure after 1961 was as follows:

1961/62 Tuition £139,882 Boarding £20,474
1962/63 Tuition £193,025 Boarding £22,750
1963/64 Tuition £176,359 Boarding £20,380
1964/65 Tuition £180,638 Boarding £17,144
1965/66 Tuition £170,234 Boarding £17,946
1966/67 Tuition £182,725 Boarding £6,400
1967/68 Tuition £178,541 Boarding £13,429

Table 10 expresses the expenditure on upper schools in terms of annual averages for the groups of years shown and distinguishes various groups of school. It shows that, without exception, all groups increased their rate of expenditure in the 15 years from 1950. Overall the rate of expenditure in the 1960/61—1964/65 period was about four times that in the comparable period a decade before. Most groups increased the value of their building programmes at about that rate.

The independent schools covered in the previous survey for the Commission also showed a fourfold increase in the same period. (First Report, Appendix 12, Table 19.)

Since 1965 there have been some interesting variations between different kinds of direct grant school. Overall, the average annual expenditure fell from £2,282,000 to £2,003,000. This in part reflects the Department's stricter controls during the period. Two groups of schools did, however, increase their rate of building—the boys' boarding schools and the girls' schools with large sixth forms.

As with independent schools, the girls' direct grant schools have been undertaking less building than the boys' schools, despite the fact that pupil numbers are almost the same.

Table 10

Capital expenditure in the direct grant schools 1950 to 1968
Average annual expenditure (upper school including boarding)

£

Type of school	1950/51–1954/55	1955/56–1959/60	1960/61–1964/65	1965/66–1967/68	Total expenditure 1950–1968
Boys					
Schools with large sixth forms	115,000	317,000	397,000	271,000	4,957,000
Roman Catholic schools	85,000	179,000	355,000	176,000	3,620,000
Boarding schools	91,000	204,000	323,000	430,000	4,377,000
All boys' schools	324,000	841,000	1,313,000	1,028,000	15,477,000
Girls					
Schools with large sixth forms	56,000	86,000	238,000	514,000	3,443,000
Roman Catholic schools	109,000	212,000	442,000	212,000	4,451,000
Boarding schools	13,000	34,000	62,000	54,000	708,000
All girls' schools	237,000	494,000	935,000	935,000	11,135,000
All schools (including co-ed)	566,000	1,374,000	2,282,000	2,003,000	27,117,000

Note: Figures to the nearest £1,000.

The nature of the capital expenditure

Schools were asked to distinguish the kind of building they had undertaken. Nearly a quarter of the building has taken the form of new classroom accommodation. Nearly a half has been of other teaching facilities. Next in importance to classrooms were laboratories on which £5 million was spent. The boys' schools with large sixth forms spent the highest proportion on laboratory space.

The spread of expenditure between different purposes in the various groups of schools varied very little, with the obvious exception of the boarding schools.

Table 11

The use of new buildings and equipment 1950–1968

(Upper school tuition and boarding)

Percentages and £

Type of school	Teaching facilities						Domestic purposes		Boarding accom-modation & sana-toria	Other	All purposes	
	Class rooms	Libraries	Specialist rooms e.g. music	Labora-tories	Gymnasia and sports	Assembly halls	Dining halls & kitchens	Staff accom-modation			%	£
Boys Schools with large sixth forms	22·3	4·0	6·1	20·7	13·6	6·8	5·9	4·9	5·3	10·4	100	4,849,000
Roman Catholic schools	29·5	5·3	3·3	18·7	11·6	7·8	10·4	3·8	2·7	6·9	100	3,546,000
Boarding schools	21·8	2·9	3·0	16·6	12·3	4·0	5·3	9·1	22·2	2·8	100	4,335,000
All boys' schools	24·0	3·6	4·0	20·2	12·2	7·9	7·0	5·3	8·6	7·2	100	15,212,000
Girls Schools with large sixth forms	22·1	2·3	4·8	12·1	12·5	2·1	10·6	2·7	1·5	29·3	100	3,409,000
Roman Catholic schools	27·3	4·4	7·5	13·7	14·9	10·5	6·2	2·0	1·5	12·0	100	4,373,000
Boarding schools	18·9	2·5	1·8	12·9	16·7	7·3	8·8	5·4	17·7	8·0	100	684,000
All girls' schools	25·4	3·7	5·3	15·9	13·6	6·8	7·4	2·5	2·3	17·1	100	10,961,000
All schools (including co-ed)	24·3	3·6	4·7	18·5	12·9	7·5	7·1	4·1	5·9	11·3	100	26,678,000

Total expenditure in £	6,485,000	964,000	1,265,000	4,944,000	3,449,000	1,988,000	1,902,000	1,089,000	1,576,000	3,016,000		26,678,000

Note: Figures to the nearest £1,000.
One girls' school and five boys' schools were unable to distinguish between all or some of the above categories, and the amounts given were divided proportionately between the columns, according to the average distribution for their group.
The total expenditure figure corresponds to the expenditure on buildings and furniture and equipment in Table 9.

The finance of capital expenditure

Table 12 shows the means by which the schools raised money to pay for the building work described already. The most important single method, especially for the Catholic schools, was borrowing. Of the £24.4 million worth of building for which returns were received over a third was financed from borrowing. The Catholic schools financed half the cost in this way.

The categories shown mostly explain themselves. The Industrial Fund for the Advancement of Science in Schools raised funds from industry in the late 1950s with the purpose of improving science facilities in independent and direct grant schools. The independent public schools received £1.4 million from this source. It would seem that the direct grant schools received rather less—just over £1 million plus what the Girls' Public Day Schools Trust (G.P.D.S.T.) schools obtained. The comparatively large proportion of funds falling in the 'other' category where the Catholic schools are concerned, primarily constitutes grants made from denominational sources.

For the most part the finance is from private sources, individuals, firms or the schools' own funds or assets. In one respect public funds have been directly involved. As mentioned earlier the £8.8 million of borrowing results in debt charges that have to be met in some form. A few schools charge these directly to a foundation account. Others have to meet them out of fee income. The total of debts being met from fee income outstanding in 1969 was over £6 million. Very little of the building undertaken after 1950 will have been financed from loans now paid off, while some of the outstanding debts date back before 1950. However, by comparing the debts of various groups of schools with the proportion of fees paid out of public funds in those schools it was possible to estimate roughly how much capital expenditure had been financed out of public funds. It was about £4.5 million. Finance of building from revenue surplus will again involve some contribution from public funds though most of it is probably on boarding account. Altogether between 15 and 20 per cent of building has probably been met from public funds. There has also been indirect support through tax remission on covenants to the schools. The majority of building has nevertheless been met from private funds.

An important element in this private support has been appeal fund income. The boys' schools, like their public school counterparts, have been far more successful in raising these funds. Most of those subscribing have been individuals but 16 per cent came from firms—a higher percentage than in the case of the public schools (9 per cent).

Table 12

Sources of funds for major projects 1950–1968

(upper school tuition and boarding)

Percentages and £

Type of school	New borrowing	Appeal funds	Industrial fund	Special donations	Allocation from other school funds	Sale of land	Sale of of other assets	Revenue surplus	Decrease in assets	Other	All sources	
											%	£
Boys												
Schools with large sixth forms	21·4	17·2	6·7	3·9	10·9	8·5	3·3	14·4	5·8	7·9	100	4,957,000
Roman Catholic schools	53·5	5·3	3·6	8·9	0·6	0·4	1·4	4·2	0·6	21·5	100	3,620,000
Boarding schools	29·8	20·6	6·7	3·8	2·2	1·4	13·1	17·3	1·0	4·1	100	4,377,000
All boys' schools	34·0	15·8	6·1	5·5	4·5	3·8	6·2	11·4	2·8	9·9	100	15,477,000
Girls												
Schools with large sixth forms*	37·3	13·1	1·3	3·6	8·8	1·5	1·3	18·3	6·9	7·9	100	1,883,000
Roman Catholic schools	49·6	4·3	0·1	6·2	5·3	1·1	2·5	4·9	—	26·0	100	4,451,000
Boarding schools	26·8	3·1	1·5	3·3	5·5	—	34·4	15·9	7·9	1·6	100	708,000
All girls' schools (excluding G.P.D.S.T.)	41·2	8·0	0·7	5·5	5·4	1·3	5·4	12·8	2·8	16·9	100	8,408,000
All schools (excluding G.P.D.S.T. and including co-ed)	36·2	13·2	4·2	5·6	4·7	2·9	6·0	11·9	3·2	12·1	100	24,391,000
Total expenditure in £	8,824,000	3,219,000	1,033,000	1,365,000	1,150,000	706,000	1,449,000	2,901,000	782,000	2,962,000		24,391,000

*Excluding six schools which are also G.P.D.S.T. schools.

Note: Figures to the nearest £1,000.
The total figures exclude funds raised by the G.P.D.S.T. which was unable to break down the sources of income for its schools into the above categories.

Table 13

School appeals 1950–68. The sums raised (upper schools—all accounts)

£

Type of school	The total value of money received or promised under covenant in appeals launched:		
	Before 1960	After 1960	In 1950–68
Boys			
Schools with large sixth forms	534,000	964,000	1,497,000
Roman Catholic schools	283,000	123,000	406,000
Boarding schools	392,000	987,000	1,379,000
All boys' schools	1,282,000	2,728,000	4,010,000
Girls			
Schools with large sixth forms	68,000	228,000	296,000
Roman Catholic schools	77,000	244,000	321,000
Boarding schools	—	47,000	47,000
All girls' school	235,000	771,000	1,007,000
All schools (including co-ed)	1,559,000	3,590,000	5,150,000

Note: Figures to the nearest £1,000

Table 14

Total value of money received or promised since 1950

Percentages and £

	Individuals	Foundations or trusts	Firms	Anony-mous	Other sources	Total	
						%	£
Boys	67·7	4·8	17·3	0·8	9·4	100	4,010,000
Girls	71·1	5·3	8·0	1·2	14·2	100	1,007,000
Totals (including co-ed)	67·9	4·8	16·2	0·9	10·2	100	5,150,000

Note: Figures to the nearest £1,000

5. COMPARATIVE COSTS

It is important to begin by being clear about the nature of the costs that are being discussed. There are two distinctions to be made. One is between *average* costs and *marginal* costs. The other is between the cost to *public funds* and the *economic* cost.

Average costs merely mean the total expenditure on any group of pupils divided by the number of pupils involved. Marginal costs are concerned with the extra costs of adding another pupil to a school. It is this concept that is relevant when examining policy changes or movements from one sector to another. In practice average costs are often all that are available.

The cost to public funds merely measures public expenditure per pupil. The economic cost measures the value of resources devoted to each child, however those resources are paid for. It should ideally comprise two elements: the value of current goods and services (basically the cost of teachers' salaries and other running costs), and imputed rent (the cost of using the school buildings).

The cost to public funds

Table 15 attempts to show the average expenditure from public funds on different categories of pupils. Where the local education authority pays the fees for free and reserved place pupils the cost to public funds comprises the capitation grants plus the fee and some other minor items. Column 2 shows the average cost to public funds of each child placed by a local education authority in a direct grant school in 1967–68, and the way this varied between types of school.

There are no comparable figures for public expenditure on pupils in maintained grammar schools. As the following section will show average expenditure on teachers' salaries and other current expenses is probably very similar but loan charges cannot be allocated between different types of maintained school.

A rough indication of the average public expenditure per secondary school pupil, including loan charges and administrative costs, can be derived from inter-authority payments. These are paid by one authority to another when a child is educated outside its own area. They are not entirely comparable with direct grant school figures. The latter, for example, include an element of school meals expenditure. The loan charge element in the local authority payments is higher than in the case of the direct grant schools partly because the direct grant schools finance much of their capital expenditure by means other than borrowing, and even more important because the maintained sector is expanding and its buildings are newer.

In 1967–68 the average inter-authority payment for pupils with the age balance obtaining in the direct grant schools would have been £198. For 1969–70 the figure would have been about £207. In the same year the combined capitation grant and average fee came to about £207.

It should be stressed that these figures are averages. They do not indicate what would happen if more pupils were sent to direct grant schools or more sent to a local authority's own schools.

Public funds not only support pupils placed by local education authorities. The capitation grants also meet some of the costs of fee-paying pupils. Column 3 shows the average contribution from public funds to the cost of educating pupils even where the parents are paying the full fee. In 1967–68 the average figure was £71.

Column 4 shows the public expenditure per pupil on those whose parents have part of the fee remitted in addition. In 1967–68 the average figure was £124.

Table 15

Public expenditure per pupil on different categories of pupils (upper school tuition)

£

Type of school (1)	L.E.A. free and reserved places (2)	Residuary places (Fees paid in full by parents) (3)	Residuary places (Fees paid in part by parent on means test) (4)	All pupils (5)	Total public expenditure (6)
Boys' schools Schools with large sixth forms	190	76	127	139	2,371,233
Catholic schools	168	71	122	160	2,091,923
Boarding schools	190	72	127	119	1,248,374
All boys' schools	184	73	125	139	6,939,497
Girls' schools Schools with large sixth forms	188	74	117	128	1,553,504
Catholic schools	159	66	122	148	3,220,327
Boarding schools	191	69	120	120	344,197
All girls' schools	177	69	124	138	6,802,200
All schools (including co-ed)	184	71	124	139	13,969,660
Number of pupils	60,550	10,771	28,758	101,236	

Economic cost

In assessing the economic cost the aim was to exclude the various incomparable items mentioned previously and compare the value of resources devoted to the average child in a direct grant grammar school with those devoted to a child in a maintained grammar school. Local authorities do not usually keep or return to the Department figures which distinguish costs in different types of school.

Notional costs (according to age) per pupil in maintained grammar schools for 1967–68 were calculated (on lines suggested by the Department's Cost Investigation Unit). First, expenditure on teachers' salaries was calculated for the different age groups of pupils in grammar, secondary modern, comprehensive and other schools from the information available about the qualification of teachers in these schools, the salaries of teachers with different qualifications and the pupil/teacher ratio for each age group in the school. It was assumed that within each of the four categories of teachers, men graduates, women graduates, men non-graduates and women non-graduates—average salaries are the same in different types of schools. It was then assumed that other costs bore the same relationship to teachers' salaries in all types of school. The resultant figures were £132 for pupils under 15, £165 for pupils aged 15 not in the sixth form and £250 for sixth formers. These figures do not include school meal costs or debt charges.

In order to compare expenditure therefore, the average expenditure of direct grant schools, excluding school meals, loan charges and transfer to other accounts, was calculated separately for each of the various groups of schools. The notional maintained grammar school expenditure per pupil for each age group was multiplied by the number of pupils of those ages in the direct grant schools for each group and an average per pupil calculated. The results can be seen in Table 16. It should be borne in mind that the direct grant school costs will include some administrative costs which in maintained schools are borne centrally by local education departments. It is not possible to estimate these with any great accuracy, but they would probably amount to less than £5 per pupil on the Tuition Account. Taking this into account, the differences in average expenditure per pupil were small for all the schools together. However there were significant differences between groups of schools. Basically the average expenditure per pupil in Catholic schools on teacher salaries and running costs was considerably lower than the notional figure for maintained grammar schools. The average expenditure in other schools was higher. The overall figures should therefore be treated with caution.

Table 16

Average costs in direct grant (upper school tuition accounts only) and maintained grammar schools 1967-68

£

Type of school (1)	Average expenditure per pupil on: Teachers' salaries (2)	All current expenditure (excluding meals) (3)
Boys' schools		
A. Schools with large sixth forms	129	189
Notional maintained grammar school costs assuming same age distribution	120	172
B. Catholic schools	109	157
Notional maintained grammar school costs	116	166
C. Boarding schools	126	188
Notional maintained grammar school costs	117	168
All boys' schools	122	178
Girls' schools		
A. Schools with large sixth forms	125	176
Notional maintained grammar school costs	117	168
B. Catholic schools	102	141
Notional maintained grammar school costs	113	162
C. Boarding schools	129	185
Notional maintained grammar school costs	114	163
All girls' schools	115	160
All schools (including co-ed)*	119	169
Maintained grammar schools expenditure unweighted, excluding administration	113	161
Weighted by direct grant age distribution	116	167*

* Direct grant school costs will include some administrative costs which in maintained schools are borne centrally by local education departments. These are expected to amount to less than £5 per pupil on the Tuition Account.

6. THE FINANCIAL EFFECT ON THE LOCAL AUTHORITY

It has been suggested that local authorities gain financially by sending children to direct grant schools because the central government meets a part of the cost through the capitation grant to the school as well as supporting the local authority through the rate support grant. This is not in fact so.

This grant from the central government comprises three elements. A resources element, which aids poor authorities, a domestic element which aids householders, and a needs element. The last is the most important. Part of it is calculated on the basis of the area's total population, but in addition part is related to an area's 'needs'. Educational needs are calculated on the basis of the number of 'education units' for which that authority is financially responsible. A child at primary school is counted as one unit, older children higher than that. Where a local authority pays for a child to attend a direct grant school it does not receive the full education needs element for that child but only 70 per cent of it. At the margin the value of this reduction is equivalent to the average value of the capitation grant per child in a direct grant school.

Table 17 illustrates the comparable financial burdens to a local authority in more detail.

If a local authority were to send one of its pupils to a maintained school in another authority's area it would have cost £177 for a pupil under 16 and £285 for a pupil of 16 or over in 1969–70. On average for the purposes of the following calculation it is assumed that it would cost an authority the same to educate the pupil itself though it could well cost less.

The rate support grant is so calculated that additional school children for whom the authority is financially responsible bring an addition to the needs element of the grant. The formula is given in Table 17 (see column 2). At the margin an authority will gain 1.9 times £79 for children over 11 and under 16 and 3.05 times £79 for children of 16 and over. It should be stressed that this is the marginal rate for government assistance. Where the authority sends a child to a direct grant school the value of this grant falls by 30 per cent (see column 2). Thus for every additional child under 16 on which the authority spends £177 in its own schools the needs element will provide £150 and the authority £27 (see column 3).

If the local authority pays £154 in fees at a direct grant school (the expected average for 1969–70), only £105 will be attracted in the needs element if the child is under 16, leaving the authority to make up a balance of £49. In respect of this child it is therefore £22 worse off.

If a child is 16 or older his fees at a direct grant school remain the same, but the alternative cost of providing a sixth form place is higher and the special needs element an authority receives is higher. As can be seen from Table 17 the authority would, on average, be £59 better off for each 16 year old in a direct grant school. Assuming an authority sent three pupils below 16 to a direct grant school for every one of 16 or more, roughly the present position, it would be £1.15s. *worse off* per pupil as compared to educating the child itself or sending it to another authority.

In practice because the level of fees varies so much and because local authority costs vary the actual outcome must differ widely between authorities. However, in terms of national averages the position is, and is intended to be, that authorities do not gain in financial terms by sending a child to a direct grant school.

Table 17

Comparison of the cost to a local authority of sending a pupil to a maintained or direct grant school 1969–70

	Initial cost to local authority (1)	Value of the Rate Support Grant Needs Element (2)	Balance to be met by local authority (3)	Gain (+) or loss (—) compared to cost of maintained schools (4)
Maintained	Inter authority charges:			
	Under 16 £177	1·90×79=150	£27	
	Over 16 £285	3·05×79=241	£44	
Direct grant	Average fee £154	Under 16 70%×150=105	£49	—£22
		16 and over 70%×241=169	Credit of £15	+£59
				All pupils* —£1 15s.
		NB Value of capitation grant *Under 16 =£32* *16 and over =£116*		

* This assumes 3 under 16 pupils to every one 16 or over.

ANNEX I
Form 312G
1967-68

(TUITION AND BOARDING SCHOOL ACCOUNT
OF DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS.)

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

STATEMENT OF ACCOUNT

OFFICIAL No.

OF THE SCHOOL KNOWN AS

.... (As in Department's correspondence)

....

FORMING PART OF THE FOUNDATION OR INSTITUTION KNOWN AS

....

....

and situate in the { Borough / Urban Council / Civil Parish } of..

in the { County / County Borough } of..

FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31st MARCH, 1968

THE REVENUE ACCOUNTS HEREIN REPRESENT INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

WE HEREBY CERTIFY That the following Statements and Accounts are correct.	I HEREBY CERTIFY That I have examined the following Statements and Accounts and that I have ascertained by audit the correctness thereof
.... } Governors	.... Auditor
Countersigned:— .... Clerk to the Governors	.... Qualification
Date ....19...........	*Date* ....19...........

The Audit Certificate must be given by a Member of one of the following Bodies:—
The Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales;
The Institute of Chartered Accountants of Scotland;
The Institute of Chartered Accountants in Ireland;
The Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants, or
The Association of Certified and Corporate Accountants.

STATEMENT No. 1

Number of pupils on the roll on 1st March, 1968:—	Day Pupils	Boarders
(*a*) Upper School		
(*b*) Lower School (if any)		
Total		
(*c*) Sixth Form included in (*a*) above		
Average number of day pupils taking School Dinners during the year ended 31.3.68		
Upper School		
Lower School		

2.—SCHOOL REVENUE ACCOUNT

Expenditure	*Tuition accounts*		
	Upper School	*Lower School*	*Boarding Account*
EMPLOYEES	£	£	£
1. Salaries and Wages (gross amounts):			
(*a*) (i) Head Master or Mistress — 1. Contributory Service			
2. Other Service			
(ii) Other Teaching Staff. — 1. Contributory Service			
2. Other Service			
(*b*) Administration and Clerical Staff. — (i) Clerk and/or Bursar			
(ii) Clerical Assistance to Head Master or Mistress			
(iii) Other			
(*c*) Matrons and Nursing Staff			
(*d*) (i) Domestic Bursars, Housekeepers and Caterers			
(ii) Kitchen and Dining Room Staff			
(*e*) Caretakers, Stokers, Porters and Cleaners			
(*f*) Building and Plant Maintenance Workers			
(*g*) Gardeners and Groundsmen			
(*h*) Laboratory Assistants			—
(*i*) Other Employees (specify)			
2. National Insurance (Employer's Contributions including Graduated Contributions)			
3. Superannuation Charges (Employer's Contributions)			
(*a*) Under Teachers (Superannuation) Acts			
(*b*) Under other Acts or Governors' Pension Scheme			
4. Allowances			
SUB-TOTAL ITEMS 1 to 4			
RUNNING EXPENSES			
5. Premises (excluding wages):—			
(*a*) Repair and Maintenance of Buildings and Plant			
(*b*) Repair and Replacement of Furniture and Fittings			
(*c*) Maintenance of Grounds, including Playing Fields			
(*d*) Fuel, Light, Water and Cleaning materials			
(*e*) Rent			
(*f*) Rates			

Expenditure	Tuition accounts		Boarding Account
	Upper School	Lower School	
RUNNING EXPENSES—cont.	£	£	£
6. Supplies, Equipment and Tools:—			
(a) Books (i) Library			—
(ii) Text Books, etc.			—
(b) Stationery and Materials for instructional purposes			—
(c) Apparatus and Equipment			
(d) Laundry			
(e) Food (including £ for produce grown in Gardens)			
7. Establishment Expenses:—			
(a) Printing, Stationery, Advertising, Postage, Telephone, etc.			
(b) Insurance			
(c) Audit			
(d) Bank Charges (excluding interest)			
(e) Staff Appointment Expenses (including Advertising)			
(f) Other Establishment Expenses (specify)			
8. Miscellaneous Expenses:—			
(a) Medical Inspection and School Doctor			
(b) Examination Fees			—
(c) Prizes			—
(d) Other Speech Day Expenses			
(e) Games, Match expenses, Sports, etc.			
(f) Other miscellaneous expenses (specify):—			
9. Overhead expenditure on School Meals for Day pupils			—
(excluding salaries and wages) (specify):—			
SUB-TOTAL ITEMS 1 to 9			
10. Minor Capital Expenditure:—			
(a) Alterations to Buildings			
(b) New Furniture, Fittings and Equipment			
11. Transfers to Foundation Account (Form 301G):—			
(a) For Loan Charges (Capital and interest)			
(b) For other purposes (specify):—			
12. Transfers to Reserve, Repairs Funds, etc.			
13. Loan Charges (where no Foundation a/c Form 301G submitted)			
(a) Interest payment			
(b) Capital repayment			
14. Total Expenditure			
15. Balance being excess of Income over Expenditure for the year			
TOTALS £			

Income	*Tuition accounts*		*Boarding Account*
	Upper School	*Lower School*	
16. Transfers from Foundation Account (Form 301G):—	£	£	£
(*a*) For General Purposes (From Acct. 1 Head 6(ii) (*b*))			
(*b*) For Scholarships, Prizes, etc. (From Acct. II)			
17. Transfers from Reserve, Repairs Funds, etc.			
18. Fees for extra subjects			—
19. School Meals (Day pupils only) Income received from:—			
(*a*) Parents			—
(*b*) Local Education Authorities			—
(*c*) Staff			—
20. Amounts deducted from salaries of Resident Staff for board and lodging			
21. Sales:—			
(*a*) Books			
(*b*) Stationery and Materials			
(*c*) Sale of Produce (including £ transferred to Head 6(*e*))			
22. Other Income:—			
(*a*) Donations and Voluntary Contributions			
(*b*) Miscellaneous (specify):—			
(*c*) Grants from Local Education Authorities other than in respect of fees			
SUB-TOTAL			
23. Boarding and Tuition Fees receivable:—			
(*a*) Parents			
(*b*) Local Education Authorities			
(*c*) Other Sources (specify):—			
24. Grants from the Department of Education and Science under The Direct Grant Schools Regulations, 1959 (Gross Amounts):—			
(*a*) Capitation and Sixth Form Grant:			
(i) For Educational Year, 1966/67			
Second Instalment			
Balance			
Less due from Department on 31st March, 1967			
(ii) For Educational Year 1967/68			
First Instalment			
Add due from Department on 31st March, 1968			
(*b*) Remitted Fees			
Summer Term, 1967			
Autumn Term, 1967			
Spring Term, 1968			
or			
Educational Year, 1966/67			
(*c*) Foreign Assistants			
25. Total Income			
26. Balance being excess of Expenditure over Income for the year			
TOTALS £			

3.—BALANCE SHEET AS AT 31st MARCH, 1968

Where printed accounts are prepared, a copy of the balance sheet may be supplied instead of completing this statement.

LIABILITIES	£	ASSETS	£
TOTAL £		TOTAL £	

ANNEX II

Enclosure B

Questions on finance

Notes:

(i) If there is a lower school, separate returns should be made for upper and lower schools.

(ii) Information about property used for school purposes is required: property owned by the school foundation and used for other purposes, e.g. to provide a source of income, should not be included.

(iii) No details relating to a particular school will be published without reference to the governors.

1. Please give capital expenditure for past years shown below. This should exclude minor capital expenditure which is returned on Form 312G to the Department of Education and Science. If records are unavailable for any period, please indicate the fact. Where no capital expenditure was undertaken, enter "None".

	Purchases of land other than for building purposes (i) £	*Buildings and land for building purposes* (ii) £	*Furniture and Equipment* (iii) £	*Total* (iv) £
1950/51–1954/55	....	....	....	....
1955/56–1959/60	....	....	....	....
1960/61–1964/65	....	....	....	....
1965/66–1967/68	....	....	....	....
Total				

Notes:

(i) The figures should give net additions to the capital account during each period, i.e. after deducting sales of land or other property, but depreciation should not be deducted.

(ii) Where buildings are to be used jointly with a religious community e.g. chapel, exclude them

2. Please allocate the totals in columns (ii) and (iii) above between the categories below. It is appreciated that these will only be estimates.

£

Boarding (include boarding houses, other boarding accommodation and sanatoria) ....

Teaching Classrooms ....

Libraries ....

Workshops/Art rooms/Music rooms ....

Laboratories ....

Gymnasia and sports facilities ....

Assembly Hall ....

Domestic Dining halls and kitchens ....

Staff quarters ....

Staff houses ....

Other (specify)

....

....

Total (as (ii) and (iii) above)

3. How has the capital expenditure been financed in the period 1950–1968? Again only estimates are required.

£

New borrowing ....

Transfer from school's appeal funds ....

The Industrial Fund for the Advancement of Scientific Education in Schools ....

Special donations ....

Allocations from other funds ....

Sale of land ....

Sale of other assets ....

Revenue surpluses ....

Decrease in current assets over current liabilities (or increase in current liabilities over current assets) ....

Other sources ....

Total [as (iv) above]

Note: New borrowing should be a net figure after repayments.

4. *Appeal funds*

(a) Give details of appeal funds since 1950 including any still open.

	Date launched	*Target* £	*Total amount received in cash or promised under covenant* £
(i)	....	....	....
(ii)	....	....	....
(iii)	....	....	....
(iv)	....	....	....
		Total	

(b) Estimate the proportion of the total shown in (a) which has been given by:

	%
(i) Individuals	....
(ii) Foundations or Trusts	....
(iii) Firms	....
(iv) Anonymously	....
(v) Other sources	....

5. *Rateable Value*

(a) Give the gross value of all school properties in 1967/68

	£
Owned by the school	....
Leased by the school	....
Total	

If assessments not yet agreed, give inland revenue figures.

(b) Give the total value of mandatory rate relief to the school in the year under review.

£ ....

6. *Selective Employment Tax*

Please enter below an estimate of the amount of tax to be payable in the current financial year. £ ....

Signed .... Position ....

Date ....

APPENDIX 8

ANALYSIS OF THE V.R.Q. DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN A SAMPLE OF LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

A sample of local education authorities were asked to supply information which would enable the Commission to compare the Verbal Reasoning Quotients (V.R.Q.s) of pupils in maintained schools with those of pupils supported financially in direct grant schools. Details were obtained for six authorities and a total of 14,918 pupils. Of these, 13,995 (8,295 boys; 5,700 girls) were in maintained schools and 923 (513 boys; 410 girls) in direct grant schools. All figures relate to the year 1968 with the exception of Authority D (1964) and Manchester (1966). In the case of Authority D, 1964 was the last year in which selection at 11 took place and the figures do not include the Roman Catholic pupils (3 per cent of all pupils) who transferred to maintained schools in another area.

Manchester supplied details of 8,848 pupils (4,521 boys; 4,327 girls) in maintained, direct grant and independent schools. This information was analysed by the Commission and separate tables prepared (Tables 7 and 8). (A summary of this analysis is also included in Tables 1 to 6.) Excluded from the Manchester tables are 1,038 pupils (507 boys; 531 girls) for whom V.R.Q.s were not known, and 200 pupils (145 boys; 55 girls) with V.R.Q.s of less than 70.

Tables 1 to 6 indicate that the direct grant schools take the major share of the 130+ V.R.Q. group. From the total of all local education authorities, the distribution of pupils in the 120+ and 130+ V.R.Q. groups is as follows:

	Boys		Girls	
	Maintained Schools	Direct Grant Schools	Maintained Schools	Direct Grant Schools
120+ V.R.Q. group	57%	43%	62%	38%
130+ V.R.Q. group	33%	67%	47%	53%

Percentages in the following tables have been individually rounded and may not therefore add up to 100 per cent. A dot (.) in the body of the table indicates a negligible percentage.

Table 1

V.R.Q. analysis of pupils in a sample of local education authorities

Boys

Local education authority and type of school	Numbers of pupils with V.R.Q. of:					Total entry
	140 or above	130–139	120–129	110–119	below 110	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Authority A						
Maintained	1	3	22	113	493	632
Direct Grant	—	23	44	23	—	90
Total	1	26	66	136	493	722
Authority B						
Maintained	—	9	71	94	432	606
Direct Grant	3	14	5	—	—	22
Total	3	23	76	94	432	628
Authority C						
Maintained*	—	15	36	110	626	787
Direct Grant	—	—	5	8	—	13
Total	—	15	41	118	626	800
Authority D						
Maintained	1	5	40	76	220	342
Direct Grant	9	9	6	2	—	26
Total	10	14	46	78	220	368
Authority E						
Maintained	1	15	100	317	1,834	2,267
Direct Grant	9	42	94	4	—	149
Total	10	57	194	321	1,834	2,416
Manchester						
Maintained	—	27	210	547	2,877	3,661
Direct Grant	11	34	111	57	—	213
Total	11	61	321	604	2,877	3,874
Total of all six local education authoritie						
Maintained	3	74	479	1,257	6,482	8,295
Direct Grant	32	122	265	94	—	513
Total	35	196	744	1,351	6,482	8,808

* Figures for secondary modern schools estimated

Table 2

Numbers of pupils in Table 1 expressed as percentages of totals in the category of school

Boys

Local education authority and type of school	Percentages of pupils with V.R.Q. of:						Number of pupils
	140 or above	130–139	120–129	110–119	below 110	Total	
	Percentages of Column 6 line totals						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		(6)
Authority A							
Maintained	·	·	3	18	78	100	632
Direct Grant	—	26	49	26	—	100	90
Total	·	4	9	19	68	100	722
Authority B							
Maintained	—	2	12	15	71	100	606
Direct Grant	14	64	23	—	—	100	22
Total	1	4	12	15	69	100	628
Authority C							
Maintained	—	2	5	14	79	100	787
Direct Grant	—	—	38	61	—	100	13
Total	—	2	5	15	78	100	800
Authority D							
Maintained	·	1	12	22	64	100	342
Direct Grant	35	35	23	8	—	100	26
Total	3	4	13	21	60	100	368
Authority E							
Maintained	·	1	4	14	81	100	2,267
Direct Grant	6	28	63	3	—	100	149
Total	·	2	8	13	76	100	2,416
Manchester							
Maintained	—	1	6	15	78	100	3,661
Direct Grant	5	16	52	27	—	100	213
Total	·	2	8	16	74	100	3,874
All six local education authorities							
Maintained	·	1	6	15	78	100	8,295
Direct Grant	6	24	52	18	—	100	513
Total	·	2	8	15	74	100	8,808

Table 3

Numbers of pupils in Table 1 expressed as percentages of local education authority column totals

Boys

Local education authority and type of school	Percentages of pupils with V.R.Q. of:					All pupils
	140 or above	130–139	120–129	110–119	below 110	
	Percentages of local education authority column totals					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Authority A						
Maintained	100	11	33	83	100	88
Direct Grant	—	88	67	17	—	12
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	1	26	66	136	493	722
Authority B						
Maintained	—	39	93	100	100	96
Direct Grant	100	61	7	—	—	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	3	23	76	94	432	628
Authority C						
Maintained	—	100	88	93	100	98
Direct Grant	—	—	12	7	—	2
Total	—	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	—	15	41	118	626	800
Authority D						
Maintained	10	36	87	97	100	93
Direct Grant	90	64	13	3	—	7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	10	14	46	78	220	368
Authority E						
Maintained	10	26	51	99	100	94
Direct Grant	90	74	48	1	—	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	10	57	194	321	1,834	2,416
Manchester						
Maintained	—	44	65	91	100	95
Direct Grant	100	56	35	9	—	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	11	61	321	604	2,877	3,874
All six local education authorities						
Maintained	9	38	64	93	100	94
Direct Grant	91	62	36	7	—	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	35	196	744	1,351	6,482	8,808

Table 4

V.R.Q. analysis of pupils in a sample of local education authorities

Girls

Local education authority and type of school	Numbers of pupils with V.R.Q. of:					Total entry
	140 or above	130–139	120–129	110–119	below 110	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Authority A						
Maintained	—	7	29	131	383	550
Direct Grant	—	17	55	13	—	85
Total	—	24	84	144	383	635
Authority B						
Maintained	—	7	58	106	355	526
Direct Grant	3	14	8	—	—	25
Total	3	21	66	106	355	551
Authority C						
Maintained*	—	13	60	105	550	728
Direct Grant	—	3	9	9	1	22
Total	—	16	69	114	551	750
Authority D						
Maintained	1	9	62	67	268	407
Direct Grant	5	12	9	—	—	26
Total	6	21	71	67	268	433
Manchester						
Maintained	5	48	217	594	2,625	3,489
Direct Grant	6	40	131	71	4	252
Total	11	88	348	665	2,629	3,741
Total of all five local education authorities						
Maintained	6	84	426	1,003	4,181	5,700
Direct Grant	14	86	212	93	5	410
Total	20	170	638	1,096	4,186	6,110

*Figures for secondary modern schools estimated

Table 5

Numbers of pupils in Table 4 expressed as percentages of totals in categories of schools

Girls

Local education authority and type of school	Percentages of pupils with V.R.Q. of:						Number of pupils
	140 or above	130–139	120–129	110–119	below 110	Total	
	Percentages of column 6 line totals						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		(6)
Authority A							
Maintained	—	1	5	24	70	100	550
Direct Grant	—	20	65	15	—	100	85
Total	—	4	13	23	60	100	635
Authority B							
Maintained	—	1	11	20	68	100	526
Direct Grant	12	56	32	—	—	100	25
Total	1	4	12	19	64	100	551
Authority C							
Maintained	—	2	8	14	76	100	728
Direct Grant	—	14	41	41	4	100	22
Total	—	2	9	15	73	100	750
Authority D							
Maintained	·	2	15	16	66	100	407
Direct Grant	19	46	35	—	—	100	26
Total	1	5	16	15	62	100	433
Manchester							
Maintained	·	1	6	17	76	100	3,489
Direct Grant	2	16	52	28	2	100	252
Total	·	2	9	18	70	100	3,741
All five local education authorities							
Maintained	·	1	7	18	73	100	5,700
Direct Grant	3	21	52	23	1	100	410
Total	·	3	10	18	69	100	6,110

Table 6

Numbers of pupils in Table 4 expressed as percentages of local education authority column totals

Girls

Local education authority and type of school	Percentages of pupils with V.R.Q. of:					All pupils
	140 or above	130–139	120–129	110–119	below 110	
	Percentages of local education authority column totals					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Authority A						
Maintained	—	29	35	91	100	87
Direct Grant	—	71	65	9	—	13
Total	—	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	—	24	84	144	383	635
Authority B						
Maintained	—	33	88	100	100	95
Direct Grant	100	67	12	—	—	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	3	21	66	106	355	551
Authority C						
Maintained	—	81	87	92	100	97
Direct Grant	—	19	13	8	.	3
Total	—	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	—	16	69	114	551	750
Authority D						
Maintained	17	43	87	100	100	94
Direct Grant	83	57	13	—	—	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	6	21	71	67	268	433
Manchester						
Maintained	45	54	62	89	100	93
Direct Grant	54	45	38	11	.	7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	11	88	348	665	2,629	3,741
All five local education authorities						
Maintained	30	49	67	92	100	93
Direct Grant	70	51	33	8	.	7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number of pupils	20	170	638	1,096	4,186	6,110

Table 7

V.R.Q. distribution of
(Results of an examination for selective
of 11+)

Type of school to which pupils were allocated	Numbers of pupils and												
	140 and above			130–139			120–129			110–119			100
	No. of pupils	Col. 1 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 2 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 3 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 4 as percentage of		No. of pupils
		Col. 9	line 9		Col. 9	line 9		Col. 9	line 9		Col. 9	line 9	
	(1)			(2)			(3)			(4)			(5)
Direct Grant Grammar (1)	11	5·4	100	34	16·7	55·7	111	54·7	34·2	47	23·2	7·9	—
Maintained Grammar (2)	—	—	—	16	2·8	26·2	156	27·8	48·1	323	57·6	54·2	66
County Tech. High (3)	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	0·2	0·3	70	12·7	11·7	443
Independent R.E. (4)	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	60·0	0·9	2	40·0	0·3	—
Comprehensive (5)	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1·3	0·3	1	1·3	0·2	41
Secondary Modern (with selective stream) (6)	—	—	—	4	0·6	6·5	24	3·6	7·4	116	17·5	19·5	322
Secondary Modern (7)	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	0·2	0·9	1	0·05	0·2	32
Miscellaneous (e.g. pupils going to other L.E.A.s or abroad) (8)	—	—	—	7	5·0	11·5	25	17·7	7·7	36	25·5	6·0	58
Pupil Totals (9)	11	0·3	100	61	1·6	100	324	8·4	100	596	15·4	100	962

pupils in Manchester schools
secondary education taken at the age
1966

Boys

percentages with V.R.Q. of:											Total Entry (pupils)	Col. 9 entries as a percentage of the column total	Cols. 1, 2 and 3 as a percentage of Col. 9
-109		90–99			80–89			70–79					
Col. 5 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 6 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 7 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 8 as percentage of				
Col. 9	line 9		Col. 9	line 9		Col. 9	line 9		Col. 9	line 9			
		(6)			(7)			(8)			(9)	(10)	(11)
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	203	5·2	76·8
11·8	6·9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	561	14·5	30·7
80·2	46·0	38	6·9	3·9	—	—	—	—	—	—	552	14·3	0·2
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	0·1	60·0
55·4	4·3	31	41·9	3·2	—	—	—	—	—	—	74	1·9	1·3
48·6	33·5	196	29·6	20·3	—	—	—	—	—	—	662	17·1	4·2
1·9	3·3	687	41·1	71·0	643	38·5	100	305	18·2	100	1,671	43·2	0·2
41·1	6·0	15	10·6	1·5	—	—	—	—	—	—	141	3·6	22·7
24·9	100	967	25·0	100	643	16·6	100	305	7·9	100	3,869	100	10·2

Table 8

V.R.Q. distribution of
(Results of an examination for selective
of 11+)

Type of school to which pupils were allocated	Numbers of pupils and												
	140 and above			130–139			120–129			110–119			100
	No. of pupils	Col. 1 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 2 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 3 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 4 as percentage of		No. of pupils
		Col. 9	line 8		Col. 9	line 8		Col. 9	line 8		Col. 9	line 8	
	(1)			(2)			(3)			(4)			(5)
Direct Grant Grammar(1)	6	2·4	54·5	40	15·9	45·4	131	52·0	37·6	71	28·2	10·7	4
Maintained Grammar(2)	5	0·9	45·5	42	7·9	47·7	189	35·6	54·3	270	50·8	40·6	25
County Tech. High (3)	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	0·6	0·9	125	25·6	18·8	346
Comprehensive (4)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	8·5	1·0	57
Secondary Modern (with selective stream) (5)	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	1·1	2·0	141	22·9	21·2	385
Secondary Modern (6)	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	0·1	0·3	4	0·2	0·6	88
Miscellaneous (e.g. pupils going to other L.E.A.s or abroad) (7)	—	—	—	6	4·3	6·8	17	12·1	4·9	47	33·3	7·1	62
Pupil Totals (8)	11	0·3	100	88	2·4	100	348	9·3	100	665	17·8	100	967

pupils in Manchester schools
secondary education taken at the age
1966

Girls

percentages with V.R.Q. of:

-109		90–99			80–89			70–79			Total Entry (pupils)	Col. 9 entries as a percentage of the column total	Col. 1, 2 and 3 as percentage of Col. 9
Col. 5 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 6 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. 7 as percentage of		No. of pupils	Col. as percentage of				
Col. 9	line 8		Col. 9	line 8		Col. 9	line 8		Col. 9	line 8			
		(6)			(7)			(8)			(9)	(10)	(11)
1·6	0·4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	252	6·7	70·2
4·7	2·6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	531	14·2	44·4
70·9	35·8	14	2·9	1·6	—	—	—	—	—	—	488	13·0	0·6
69·5	5·9	18	21·9	2·0	—	—	—	—	—	—	82	2·2	—
62·6	39·8	82	13·3	9·1	—	—	—	—	—	—	615	16·4	1·1
5·4	9·1	773	47·4	86·3	542	33·2	100	224	13·7	100	1,632	43·6	0·1
44·0	6·4	9	6·4	1·0	—	—	—	—	—	—	141	3·8	16·3
25·8	100	896	23·9	100	542	14·5	100	224	6·0	100	3,741	100	11·9

APPENDIX 9

DIRECT GRANT—BACKGROUND PAPERS

Section 1	An extract from the Prefatory Memorandum to the Regulations for Secondary Schools, 1904–5, which remains pertinent to the matters we discussed in Chapter 10 of Volume I.
Section 2	The Direct Grant Schools Regulations—to the Direct Grant Schools Regulations 1959 have been added the various Amending Regulations made since then. These are given in a consolidated form for ease of reference.
Section 3	The standard scale for the remission of fees for residuary day places in upper schools.

SECTION 1

EXTRACT FROM PREFATORY MEMORANDUM, REGULATIONS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1904–5

'xvi. The Board desire, in administering the Regulations, to work in harmony with the Local Education Authorities constituted under the Act of 1902, and to give them every assistance towards the discharge of their duties in the provision and co-ordination of higher education. With this object, the Local Education Authority will be consulted, not only as regards the eligibility of a school for recognition in the first instance, and for continuance of recognition year by year thereafter, for the purposes of grants, but on all questions which concern the relation of the school to other schools and places of education within the area of the Authority, or which affect the action of the Authority whether in the way of expenditure or of educational policy. At the same time, the Board regard it as of great importance both that local interest in the management of schools should be preserved and developed, and that the Headmaster or Headmistress should not be liable to any unnecessary interference in matters of school administration for which he or she is primarily responsible. The immediate relations of the Headmaster or Headmistress will be with the Governing Body; and the control of the Local Education Authority over the school, and its relations with the school staff, should be exercised through the Governing Body.

xvii. In order to secure the best local knowledge and the best educational experience, the functions of the Governors, and their discretion in exercising them, must therefore both be considerable. Nothing should be done to discourage the best men and women available from serving as Governors of schools, or to weaken their sense of responsibility for the effective discharge of their functions; and control exercised too closely or too minutely by the Local Education Authority would leave insufficient scope in these respects to the Governors, except by their encroaching in turn on the sphere of the Headmaster or Headmistress, a result which would be no less undesirable. In the case of Endowed Schools under Schemes having the force of a statute, for the exact observance of which the Board are specially responsible, the Governors have a direct and express liability to the Board. Other schools which receive aid from the Board may receive no aid from the Local Authority, or may receive it in varying degrees short of absolute dependence on it for their continued existence. But in the case of all schools alike the Board attach importance to direct communication with the Governing Body, and to preserving for the Governing Body as much responsibility, independence and freedom of action as is consistent with effective control of educational policy and educational provision, by the Local Authority in its own area, and by the Central Authority in all areas.'

SECTION 2

THE DIRECT GRANT SCHOOLS REGULATIONS

This consolidated version of the Regulations represents the 1959 Regulations as changed by the Amending Regulations of 1961, 1963, 1964, 1965(2) and 1968.

PART I

GENERAL

1. These regulations may be cited as the Direct Grant Schools Regulations ...... and shall come into operation on the ....

2. These regulations make provision for payment by the Minister of direct grant in respect of schools (other than special schools) not maintained by local education authorities, and prescribe the conditions relating to grant.

3.—(1) in these regulations, unless the context otherwise requires—

'authority' means the local education authority, or, where there is more than one such authority, the local education authorities, for the area served by the school;

'educational year' means the year beginning on the 1st August;

'school' does not include a school maintained by an authority, or any special school;

'upper school' means such of the forms in a school as are accepted by the Minister as providing education mainly for senior pupils.

(2) The Interpretation Act, 1889(b), shall apply for the interpretation of these regulations as it applies for the interpretation of an Act of Parliament.

Grant to Grammar Schools

4.—(1) The Minister may recognise a grammar school for the purpose of receiving grant under this regulation and may pay to the proprietors of the school, for the period for which it is so recognised, yearly grant as follows:

(a) capitation grant at a rate not exceeding £32 in respect of every pupil in the upper school on the 1st March in any year, who on or before the 31st July in that year will have attained the age of eleven but will not have attained the age of twenty;

(b) sixth form grant at a rate not exceeding £84* in respect of every pupil in the sixth form on the 1st March in any year who on or before the 31st July in that year will not have attained the age of twenty, and who either will have attained the age of seventeen on or before the date last-mentioned, or intends to take at least two subjects in the examinations for the General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level during either that or the following educational year;

(c) grant equal to the amount of fees and charges remitted to the parents of pupils in accordance with regulation 18 of these regulations;

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* The rates of capitation and sixth form grant since 1945 are listed at the end of this section.

(d) grant in respect of any special or experimental work at the school involving extraordinary expenditure, and approved by the Minister.

(2) Grant shall be paid under this regulation in respect of the educational year.

(3) A school in respect of which grant is paid under this regulation shall fulfil the conditions contained in Part II of these regulations, and if in the opinion of the Minister any condition is not fulfilled he may withhold or make a deduction from grant.

Grant to Schools not Grammar Schools

5.—(1) The Minister may recognise for the purpose of receiving grant under this regulation—

(a) any nursery school;

(b) any other school which was at the time of the coming into operation of these regulations in receipt of grant under regulation 51 or regulation 52 of the Schools Grant Regulations, 1951(a),

and he may pay to the proprietors of any such school, for the period for which it is recognised for grant, yearly grant as follows:

(a) in respect of a nursery school, grant not exceeding one half of the net cost of maintaining the school as approved by the Minister, excluding any sums received from an authority and payments made on behalf of pupils;

(b) in respect of a school in receipt of grant under the said regulation 51, grant in respect of each pupil at the school at such rate, and in respect of a school in receipt of grant under the said regulation 52, grant of such an amount, as the Minister shall determine, having regard to the rate or amount, as the case may be, paid in respect of the school for the year which ended on the 31st March, 1959.

(2) Grant shall be paid under this regulation in respect of the financial year.

(3) A school in respect of which grant is paid under this regulation shall fulfil the conditions contained in or applicable under Part III of these regulations, and if in the opinion of the Minister any such condition is not fulfilled he may withhold or make a deduction from grant.

Revocation

6.—(1) Parts I, IV, V and VI of the Schools Grant Regulations, 1951, the Schools Grant Amending Regulations No. 3, 1952(b), the Schools Grant Amending Regulations No. 5, 1954(c), the Schools Grant Amending Regulations No. 9, 1959(d), and the Schools Grant Amending Regulations No. 10, 1959(e) are hereby revoked.

(2) Any approval given, or requirement imposed, by the Minister under any regulation hereby revoked shall have effect as if given or imposed under the corresponding regulation contained in these regulations.

PART II

CONDITIONS APPLICABLE TO GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

Governors

7.—(1) A grammar school shall be conducted by a body of governors, and—

(a) either one-third of the governors shall be appointed by the authority (if more than one authority, in such proportions as the Minister shall approve); or

(b) if the proprietors of the school so prefer, the majority of the governors shall be representative governors as defined in paragraph (2) of this regulation.

(2) A representative governor shall be a person who is—

(a) a Member of Parliament, a Mayor, a chairman or vice-chairman or member of a local authority as defined in the Local Government Act, 1933(a), or a chairman or vice-chairman of an education committee of an authority, or of a parish meeting; or

(b) appointed by a local authority as above defined or by members of such an authority elected for part of the area of the authority, by an education committee, or by a parish meeting.

8. Except in such special circumstances as the Minister may approve a governor shall not have any interest, otherwise than as a trustee, in property belonging to the school, or any interest in the doing of work for or the supply of goods to the school, or receive any remuneration from the school.

Premises

9.—(1) The premises of a school shall be kept in a proper state of repair, cleanliness and hygiene and adequate arrangements shall be made for the health and safety of the pupils and staff in case of danger from fire and other causes.

(2) The premises shall be convenient for teaching purposes, adapted to the circumstances of the school, and provided with equipment adequate for the curriculum; and the rooms shall not be overcrowded.

(3) Before new premises are provided or alterations made to existing premises the approval of the Minister shall be obtained, and any application to the Minister for such approval shall be accompanied by plans, and an estimate of cost, of the work proposed.

General conduct of the school

10.—(1) The school shall be kept on a level of efficiency satisfactory to the Minister, and shall not be conducted for profit.

(2) No instruction shall be given in the school involving the use of—

(a) radioactive material other than a compound of potassium, thorium or uranium used as a chemical agent, or

(b) apparatus in which electrons are accelerated by a potential difference of five kilovolts or greater, other than apparatus used only for the purpose of receiving visual images by way of television and sounds connected therewith

unless the Secretary of State has given his approval to the giving of such instruction, which approval he may withdraw if at any time he is of opinion that the arrangements made for the health and safety of the pupils and staff are inadequate.

11. The number of pupils on the register of a class shall not exceed thirty unless, owing to unavoidable circumstances, it is not possible to comply with this regulation, in which case the number of pupils shall be such as is reasonable.

12.—(1) A pupil shall not be entered for any external examination unless either—

(a) he will have attained the age of sixteen on or before the 1st September in the year in which the examination is held; or

(b) if the examination is the General Certificate Examination, the head teacher certifies that it is desirable on educational grounds to enter him earlier, and that he has pursued a course of study with such competence that it is probable he will pass the examination in the subjects in which it is proposed to enter him.

(2) The examination fee in respect of any pupil entered for the General Certificate Examination in accordance with this regulation shall be paid by the governors.

13.—(1) Adequate provision shall be made, either by arrangement with the authority under section 78 (2) of the Education Act, 1944, or otherwise, for—

(a) the medical inspection of all pupils and the medical care of boarders; and

(b) for the supply to day-pupils of mid-day meals.

(2) No charge shall be made for medical inspection.

(3) The charges for mid-day meals to day-pupils shall be such as the Minister shall approve, and shall be wholly or partly remitted to parents unable to pay them in accordance with arrangements approved by the Minister.

14. Such records shall be kept (in addition to the register required by section 80 of the Education Act, 1944), and such information and returns furnished to him, as the Minister shall require.

15. Whenever a pupil ceases to attend the school and becomes a pupil at any other school or place of education or training, such educational and medical information concerning him as is reasonable shall be supplied to the person conducting the other school or place, if so requested by that person.

Admission

16. Places in the upper school shall, in respect of each educational year, be allocated in accordance with the following provisions:

(a) a number of free places, equal at least to one quarter of the total number of pupils admitted to the upper school during the preceding educational year, shall be allotted by the governors either directly, or by putting them at the disposal of the authority, to pupils who have attended for at least two years a primary school which was either maintained by a local authority or in receipt of grant out of Government funds;

(b) such further number of places, called reserved places, shall be put at the disposal of the authority as it may need for pupils who are suitably qualified whether or not they have attended a primary school as aforesaid, so long as the authority specifies the number of reserved places it requires at least six months before the beginning of the educational year;

(c) the total number of free and reserved places shall not, unless the governors otherwise agree, exceed one half of the total number of pupils admitted to the upper school during the preceding educational year;

(d) the whole of the fees payable in respect of the education provided for pupils given free places directly by the governors shall be remitted in full, or met out of the funds of an endowed foundation, for the whole period the pupils remain in the upper school; and in respect of places put at the disposal of the authority, the fees shall be paid by the authority as provided by s. 6 of the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1953;

(e) for the residuary places, that is places other than free and reserved places, fees shall be payable in accordance with regulation 18.

17.—(1) A pupil shall not be admitted to a school, or retained in it, unless he is capable of profiting from the education there; and, so far as is compatible with the provisions of regulation 16, with any scheme or other instrument relating to the conduct of the school, and with any arrangements made by the governors with the authority, preference shall be given to pupils who by reason of their ability and aptitude are most likely to profit from being at the school.

(2) The minimum educational standard qualifying a pupil for admission to or retention in a school shall be the same for all pupils of similar age.

(3) Subject to the provisions of regulation 16 and of paragraph (1) of this regulation, a pupil shall not be refused admission to or excluded from a school on other than reasonable grounds.

Fees

18.—(1) The fees payable in respect of the education provided at a school, and any boarding or other charges, shall be such as the Minister shall approve.

(2) Fees and charges payable in respect of day pupils in the upper school shall be wholly or partly remitted to parents unable to pay them in accordance with arrangements approved by the Minister.

Religious worship and instruction

19.—(1) On every school day there shall, subject to the next following regulation, be collective worship on the part of all pupils at the school.

(2) Religious instruction shall be given in accordance with the provisions

of the trust deed, or, if there are no provisions relating to religious instruction, in accordance with the practice already observed in the school.

(3) No pupil shall be required to attend or abstain from attending any Sunday school or place of religious worship elsewhere than on the school premises.

20.—(1) A pupil shall, if his parent so requests, be excused from attendance at religious worship or religious instruction at the school, or both, and be allowed to attend elsewhere for the purpose of receiving religious instruction of a kind not provided in the school, so long as this will not interfere unreasonably with his work at the school.

(2) A pupil who is a boarder shall, if his parent so requests, be given reasonable facilities to attend religious worship on Sundays and other days exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which the parent belongs, and to receive religious instruction outside school hours in accordance with the tenets of a particular denomination; and such worship or instruction may be on the school premises or elsewhere, but the governors shall not be required to incur expense in connection therewith.

Teachers

21.—(1) The teachers shall be sufficient in number and have the qualifications necessary for providing adequate instruction in each subject of the school curriculum.

(2) The teachers shall be paid salaries which are adequate and reasonable.

(3) A teacher shall not receive any less emolument or be deprived of or disqualified for promotion or other advantage on the ground that he does or does not give religious instruction, or by reason of his religious opinions or of his attending or omitting to attend religious worship.

(4) A teacher shall not be dismissed without an opportunity of appearing in person before the governors accompanied, if he so desires, by a friend.

22. A teacher, other than an occasional teacher, shall be employed under a written agreement, which shall define the conditions of service and indicate whether the teacher is employed in full-time service exclusively in the capacity of a teacher, or in part-time service in the capacity of a teacher, or partly in the capacity of a teacher and partly in another capacity.

Restriction on employment of teachers

23. A person who is on grounds of misconduct or conviction of a criminal offence determined by the Secretary of State to be unsuitable for employment as a teacher or suitable for employment as such only to a limited extent, shall not be employed as a teacher or, as the case may be, shall be employed as such only to the extent determined by the Secretary of State.

Reporting of termination of employment of teachers

24. If the engagement of a teacher is terminated whether by dismissal or resignation on account of misconduct or conviction of a criminal offence, the facts shall be reported to the Secretary of State.

PART III

CONDITIONS APPLICABLE TO SCHOOLS NOT GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

25. A school that is not a grammar school shall fulfil the conditions contained in regulations 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 18 (except paragraph (2)) and 21 (except paragraph (1)), and (except in the case of a nursery school) regulations 12, 19 and 20 of these regulations, and shall comply with the requirements contained in regulation 6 (relating to the size of classes), regulation 7 (relating to admission) and regulations 16, 17 and 18 and Schedules I and II (relating to teachers) of the Schools Regulations, 1959(a).

26. A school that is not a grammar school shall fulfil the following further conditions—

(a) the number of pupils on the register shall not exceed such number as the Minister shall approve;

(b) it shall, if a primary school, be conducted by a body of managers, and if a secondary school by a body of governors, to which shall be appointed, so far as the Minister so requires, representatives of an authority, not however exceeding one-third of the total number of managers or governors unless the proprietors of the school otherwise agree; and

(c) there shall be reserved for pupils from the area in which the school is situated, and from any other area normally served by the school, such number of places as may be agreed between the managers or governors and the authorities for those areas, or, failing agreement, as may be determined by the Minister.

THE RATES OF CAPITATION AND SIXTH FORM GRANT SINCE 1945

	Capitation grant	Sixth form grant*
1945	£16	—
1948	£20	—
1951	£26	—
1952	£28 . 5s.	—
1954		£20
1955	£30	£40
1956	£36	
1959	£39	£50 and then £66
1961	£43	£81
1963	£45	£84
1965	£52	
1968	£32	

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* The sixth form grant which had been discontinued in 1945 was not reintroduced until 1954.

SECTION 3

THE STANDARD SCALE FOR THE REMISSION OF FEES FOR RESIDUARY DAY PLACES IN UPPER SCHOOLS

Total gross annual income of parents or guardians from all sources (less £78 p.a. for each additional dependent child after the first) (1)	Annual contribution by parents towards the tuition fees of			
	One residuary place day pupil* (2)	Two residuary place day pupils (3)	Three residuary place day pupils (4)	Four residuary place day pupils (5)
(not exceeding)				
450	0	0	0	0
474	2	3	4	5
498	4	6	8	10
522	6	9	12	15
546	8	12	16	20
570	10	15	20	25
594	12	18	24	30
618	14	21	28	35
642	16	24	32	40
666	18	27	36	45
690	20	30	40	50
714	22	33	44	55
738	24	36	48	60
762	26	39	52	65
786	28	42	56	70
810	30	45	60	75
834	32	48	64	80
858	34	51	68	85
882	36	54	72	90
906	38	57	76	95
930	40	60	80	100
954	42	63	84	105
978	44	66	88	110
1,002	46	69	92	115
1,026	48	72	96	120
1,050	50	75	100	125
1,074	52	78	104	130
1,098	54	81	108	135
1,122	56	84	112	140
1,146	58	87	116	145
1,170	60	90	120	150
1,194	62	93	124	155
1,218	64	96	128	160
1,242	66	99	132	165
1,266	68	102	136	170
1,290	70	105	140	175
1,314	72	108	144	180

* A residuary place is one in the upper school where a parent or guardian is responsible for paying the child's tuition fees.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1,338	74	111	148	185
1,362	76	114	152	190
1,386	78	117	156	195
1,410	80	120	160	200
1,434	82	123	164	205
1,458	84	126	168	210
1,482	86	129	172	215
1,506	88	132	176	220
1,530	90	135	180	225
1,554	92	138	184	230
1,578	94	141	188	235
1,602	96	144	192	240
1,626	98	147	196	245
1,650	100	150	200	250
1,674	102	153	204	255
1,698	104	156	208	260
1,722	106	159	212	265
1,746	108	162	216	270
1,770	110	165	220	275
1,794	112	168	224	280
1,818	114	171	228	285
1,842	116	174	232	290
1,866	118	177	236	295
1,890	120	180	240	300
1,914	122	183	244	305
1,938	124	186	248	310
1,962	126	189	252	315
1,986	128	192	256	320
2,010	130	195	260	325
2,034	132	198	264	330
2,058	134	201	268	335
2,082	136	204	272	340
2,106	138	207	276	345
2,130	140	210	280	350
2,154	142	213	284	355
2,178	144	216	288	360
2,202	146	219	292	365
etc. (continuing in steps of £24)	etc. (continuing in steps of £2)	etc. (continuing in steps of £3)	etc. (continuing in steps of £4)	etc. (continuing in steps of £5)

APPENDIX 10

LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY SCHEMES OF TRANSFER OF PUPILS FROM PRIMARY TO COUNTY SECONDARY SCHOOLS: TWO EXAMPLES

We asked two of the local education authorities whose areas we visited to outline their procedure for allocating pupils to maintained secondary schools. We record what they told us in this Appendix: the arrangements of the Inner London Education Authority in Section 1 and those of the Manchester Education Authority in Section 2.

SECTION 1

INNER LONDON EDUCATION AUTHORITY

There are three parts to the Authority's scheme of transfer:

1. Preparation of a profile by primary heads for each child transferring to a secondary school. This profile gives information on a child's interests and abilities, attainments and characteristics.
2. Selection by parents, in consultation with primary heads, of a secondary school.
3. Consideration by heads of secondary schools of all applicants.

As far as entry to the large secondary schools is concerned, all schools of five form entry and over are classed as large, a scheme is in operation to ensure as far as possible that each school obtains a balanced intake of children covering a wide range of ability. The principles of this scheme are:

- (a) All schools of five form entry and over should recruit as far as possible pupils covering the whole range of ability in reasonable proportions. Otherwise schools cease to be comprehensive and if they are too heavily overweighted with children of either high or low ability the staffing and organisation become very difficult and some of the children as a result suffer.
- (b) Subject to parental choice every school should have an equal opportunity of recruiting the more able pupils so that a hierarchy of comprehensive schools is not built up.
- (c) Priority should be given to applicants living close to a school.
- (d) There must be some control over the admissions so that one school in an area is not adversely affected by the action of another.

To enable each school to carry out this policy there is a simple formula for admissions based on the respective numbers of pupils per form entry of 30 representing the top, middle and lowest broad bands of ability respectively. The three broad bands represent:

	*General ability (V.R. Groups)**
Top 40 per cent	1, 2 and 3
Middle 35 per cent	4 and 5
Bottom 25 per cent	6 and 7

Each year the number of children in each of the three broad bands in each of the Inner London divisions likely to go to the large schools is estimated. This takes account of the numbers likely to go to grammar schools. This is at present about 17.5 per cent, but this 17.5 per cent is not necessarily the top V.R. group but spread mainly over the whole of the top broad band. A formula of guidance for entry to the large schools is then calculated and heads are asked to follow the guidance when admitting children.

Although generally speaking heads are asked to follow the divisional formula of guidance, there may be special circumstances which make an adjustment of this formula desirable for particular schools. This will depend to a certain extent on parental choice and whether there is a likelihood at second choice stage of the divisional balance being obtained.

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* Primary heads give each child a verbal reasoning group on a 7 point scale.

SECTION 2

MANCHESTER EDUCATION COMMITTEE

The following information provides a description of the way in which the Manchester Education Committee allocates pupils to county secondary schools in its area.

Parents are sent two brochures, one showing the location of the various secondary schools and the other giving brief details about each school. At the same time, they are asked to supply some very basic information, i.e. name and address of the parent, name of pupil and date of birth, and to nominate three schools in order of preference. Parents are given the opportunity to state briefly any special reasons they may have for their choice.

There is no restriction, geographical or otherwise, on the parents' choice and the brochure makes it clear that if a place is allocated in a school more than three miles distant, the Committee will issue free travel passes. No information is requested or given about the ability of the child and the Heads of the primary schools attended by the pupils are not asked to make any recommendations.

As far as possible, a place is offered in the school which the parents have selected as first choice. The first choice for each school is therefore considered individually in the light of any reason which the parents may have given for making it and, where possible, or in the case of an over-subscribed school where the special reasons given by the parent justify it, the parents' choice is agreed. Having dealt with these cases, the general position is reviewed. For a significant number of schools all first choices can be allocated without difficulty but in the case of other schools there are more applications than places available. It is considered reasonable to give preference to those who live in the vicinity of the school and a substantial number (about half) of the remaining places at over-subscribed schools are therefore allocated to pupils resident near the school and whose parents have nominated that school as their first choice. In the case of the over-subscribed schools, this leaves more applicants than available places and the remaining applicants are accordingly considered individually, particular attention being given to the school nominated as the second choice. If the parents' second choice can be satisfied, a place is offered at the second choice school. Normally the remainder can be offered their first choice of school and the procedure is then complete. If, however, there are still more applicants than places available, places are offered on what is basically a random selection procedure in which each applicant has an equal chance of success. The results of this procedure after three years of operation are as follows:

			Number offered			*Percentage offered*		
	No. of places	*No. of pupils*	*1st Choice*	*2nd Choice*	*3rd Choice*	*1st Choice*	*2nd Choice*	*3rd Choice*
1969	5,940	5,545	4,347	908	290	78.4	16.4	5.2
1968	5,640	5,128	4,092	929	107	79.8	18.1	2.1
1967	5,580	4,974	3,778	839	357	76.0	16.9	7.1

The results shown in the table are improved upon when appeals are considered and, in a substantial proportion of cases, agreed.

The arrangements outlined above are facilitated by two factors: there are rather more places in county schools than are required and, secondly, parents frequently choose the nearest school so that there is a helpful relationship between choice and provision.

It is essential that the following general observations are made:

(a) The extent to which parental choice can be satisfied depends on the distribution of parental options—if some schools become outstandingly popular at the expense of other schools it will be impossible to guarantee the present level of satisfaction of parental choice in the future. The method itself does not ensure the level of parental satisfaction indicated in the above table.

(b) The arrangements do not ensure an equal spread of ability in each school.

(c) The distribution of schools, their number, individual size, and relative accessibility are important factors.

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The
Public Schools Commission

SECOND REPORT

VOLUME II: APPENDICES

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1970

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Foreword

Volume I of this Report contains the facts and figures necessary to support the analysis of the problems we were set, the arguments we considered and the conclusions we reached. We set out in this Volume material which we hope will prove of use and interest for those readers who wish to follow up in more detail particular aspects of our work.

Apart from Appendices 5 and 7, the Appendices in this Volume are intended as factual statements prepared by our Secretariat. Appendix 5, reviewing the research relevant to our work was prepared by Mr. Eric Hoyle of the Department of Education, University of Manchester. Appendix 7, surveying the finances of direct grant schools was prepared by Mr. Howard Glennerster of the London School of Economics.

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